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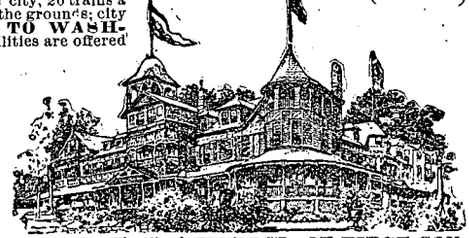

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 30, 1903.

The Week.

One of the half-battle words of Gov. Durbin of Indiana was "treason," as applied to the action of labor unions who forced their members to resign from the militia for having fired on a mob. The thing is spreading. In Texas and in Pennsylvania, organized labor is showing its teeth in the same way. The idea is growing among trades unions that the power of the State to suppress domestic violence is a power inimical to their plans and purposes; and accordingly they are laying down the doctrine that a man cannot be both a unionist and a militiaman. There could not well be a franker admission that the union programme, say what the leaders will in public, is founded upon force. As it is not possible to win by violence when there is an arm of the Executive power expressly designed to put down violence, the unions make their attack upon the militia—indirectly, for the present. What they will do later, if unchecked, may be inferred from their constantly betrayed assumption that they are above the law and above the State itself. They have set up a sovereignty within a sovereignty, and hope in the end to make Labor supreme over Government. Of course they will not succeed, and of course the labor movement will in time be compelled to disavow the rebellious and treasonable elements now so strong within it; but the present duty of good citizens is none the less obvious. That is, to resist at all costs a tyrannous power which would erect itself above the State.

The reinstatement of Foreman Miller of the Government Printing-Office put the union employees who brought about his illegal dismissal in the following dilemma: Since the constitution of their union forbids them to work with a non-union man, they must either disobey (or amend their constitution) or else stop work. For the moment they have evaded the issue by continuing to work "under protest." Protest against what? Against the law of the nation which requires that civil-service appointments shall not be restricted to any favored class of citizens. To-day the workmen under Foreman Miller have formally put themselves on record as opposed to that law, and for to-morrow or next day they contemplate the possibility of trying conclusions between two constitutions—that of the International Bookbinders' Union and that of the United States. Such pretensions would be merely absurd were they not alarming. Granted that the snarling of the Washington bookbinders is merely bad temper for the shrewd rap they have received, it certainly does indicate a conviction that their union has especial and superior rights, with which even the Government may not interfere.

An unsuspected depth of corrupt trades unionism is exposed in the trial of Lawrence Murphy, formerly treasurer of the Brooklyn Stone Cutters' Union, and, curiously, the telling evidence of Murphy's various extortions is brought out by the counsel for the defence. Murphy and his "secret committee" have outdone anything charged against Parks and Carvel. Where it is alleged that these individual walking delegates have blackmailed employers in the name of the unions, it appears by Murphy's own testimony that he had a small syndicate which collected strike money from many contractors, and voted the proceeds into its own pockets for "advances of salary." To employers this little band of extortioners represented the unions; in reality, it was a piratical enterprise, for convenience flying the union flag. As yet it is not known how far these secret committeemen had the support of the union, but it is significant that most of them had affiliations with organized labor. Murphy's conviction on a charge of grand larceny is perhaps the least important result of his extraordinary trial. Judge Newburger, in his charge to the jury, very properly ruled that the question of how the labor organization came by the money which Murphy took was not the one to be decided, but it is distinctly fortunate that the defence was of such a nature that testimony on this point was adjudged material and was admitted. Murphy staked his case on the assertion that the money which he was accused of appropriating never was in the possession of the union—a curious defence, but probably the only chance he had of escaping. If the judge had permitted this question to go to the jury it might have constituted a possible basis for some such verdict as Western juries used to give: "Not guilty if the prisoner immediately leaves town." But at any rate, it opened the door for an account by witnesses of the holding up by walking delegates of the Brooklyn Bosses' Association, which paid $10,000 in cash to a "secret committee" to have a strike declared off.

The views of Congressman Lovering of Massachusetts on the tariff question are important, not only because he is one of the few Republicans of the House who can be got to speak out on the subject, but also because he has something definite to propose. In his address before the Furniture Association in this city on Thursday evening he announced some truths which, however, we fear his party associates in Congress will regard as rank heresies. He spoke, for instance, of "the great and growing sentiment in favor of tariff revision." The "stand-patters" are pretty sure to lift their eyebrows at this, and ask disagreeably why they have never heard of it, if it is so great. Mr. Lovering's particular panacea is a more liberal law relating to drawbacks on imported material used in the manufacture of goods for export. At present, the material has to be positively identified in the exported article, and the manufacturer is never sure that he will be able to convince the authorities and get his money back. "Nothing less than a liberal drawback law, enacted at the next session of Congress," says Mr. Lovering, "will save the protective tariff from a fearful onslaught, if not utter demolition." But, knowing of old the sensitiveness of the protectionists, we suspect that they will regard Mr. Lovering's bill as in itself an onslaught which must be repelled.

The Furniture Association of America associates itself with the Boston Board of Trade and the millers of the Northwest in urging the reconvening of the Joint High Commission and the passing of a reciprocity treaty with Canada. Of course, these furniture makers will be absolved of anything like free-trade sentimentality. They are practically all, as their President, Mr. Shearer, said last Friday, protectionists; but they find themselves oppressed by duties which bear more heavily upon their raw material than in favor of the finished product. Naturally, they would like to be in the favored position of the shipping industry, which enjoys free entry of building materials; but, knowing that this is impossible, they would welcome a revision of duties which would reduce their cost of production and increase their export trade. It seems likely that this conservative sentiment for tariff revision will grow. In fact, sentimental attachment to protectionism as such cannot long survive real considerations of commercial expediency. Then, the old alarmist arguments have worn thin. Here we have the stock market in total collapse—not as a result of Clevelandism or free-trade agitation, but in the piping times of the "stand-pat" evangel.

The dismissal of Charles Hedges, Superintendent of Free Delivery, is a fresh reminder that the postal inquiry has by no means come to an end. By all odds

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one of the worst features of the Hedges case is the additional proof it gives of the lax tone of the entire Department. That precious official shows no signs of shame at having defrauded the Government, but only anger that he has been found out and betrayed by one who was his confidential clerk for three years. This clerk, it seems, gave information to the inspectors, in the shape of private letters from Hedges, which proved that he had collected per-diem expenses for days when he was attending to his private affairs many miles from the places where he swore he was. In defence of his practice of lending his travelling commission, Hedges alleges that he was authorized to do so by the high-minded but indicted Mr. Machen. Moreover, he protests that his alleged offences are practices too familiar in the Department to warrant his being singled out for punishment. The time for the promised Presidential review of the entire investigation is rapidly approaching.

Mr. Charles Emory Smith is left in a still more pitiable plight by Commissioner Procter's replies to his latest attempts to wriggle out of the responsibility for some of the flagrant violations of the Civil Service law which went on during his administration under the excuse of a war necessity. Not content with his letter to the Postmaster-General, Mr. Smith had attacked Mr. Procter in the editorial columns of the Philadelphia *Press*, personally abusing him and charging him with seeking exceptions to the civil-service rules on behalf of his own relatives and friends "more than any other man in Washington." It is not difficult for Mr. Procter to refute this malicious statement, which he does in the flattest and most explicit way. In another letter he then takes up Mr. Smith's defence and disposes of it in a way which will, we believe, be convincing to every unbiassed reader—that is, to every one who does not feel with the Washington *Post* that Mr. Smith's defence and counter accusations belong in the field of genuinely humorous writing. Mr. Smith, it will be remembered, lightly dismissed the violations of law in the Washington city post-office by saying that they were the concern of the Postmaster and not of the Postmaster-General. But, as the Tulloch revelations brought out, the worst offences in the Washington office were directly attributable to the Department and its first assistant secretary.

Two more pleas of guilty in the Alabama peonage cases were entered on Monday. This shows not only that the proof against the accused men was overwhelming, but that the energy of the prosecuting officers and the determination of Judge Jones, the Federal Justice presiding, have taken the heart out of the defence. The lawyers have even given up the attempt to get a hung jury, on the ground of political prejudice, as they succeeded in doing in the first trial of Fletcher Turner. One of the men who pleaded guilty on Monday had fled from Alabama to Texas. That took him out of the jurisdiction of the State courts, but the arm of the national Government was long enough and strong enough to bring him back. Indeed, we think that it will now be generally admitted by the Alabama newspapers—as it was by some of them before the trials—that nothing but the intervention of the Federal power could have brought the guilty men to justice. Thus a potent precedent has been set for like action by the general Government in dealing with other forms of oppression of its negro citizens.

The benevolent societies interested in protecting women immigrants and in preventing the importation of immoral persons into this country are not satisfied with the action taken by Mr. Williams, the Commissioner of Immigration, in doing away with the women inspectors who were recently employed for a period of ninety days and then discharged. It will be remembered that, in April, thirty-eight societies were represented at a conference in this city, and that they heartily approved the appointment of the women inspectors, and sent their thanks to President Roosevelt. Unfortunately, the new inspectors entered upon their duties in a blaze of publicity, which made the beginning of their work unnecessarily embarrassing and difficult. But, even in the short period of their employment, they were able to render some services of value, one of them saving a young French girl of sixteen who was being brought to this city for a life of shame. Naturally, the sudden ending of the experiment satisfied no one really concerned in stopping the white slave traffic. A year's test might perhaps have demonstrated the true value of women inspectors, but certainly no shorter period. As we understand the matter, it is now to come before Secretary Cortelyou, in such a way, it is to be hoped, that he will give his personal attention to the subject. If women are not fitted for this delicate work, then the proper men should be found. All over Europe, people and societies are moving against this traffic. The recent occurrences on a steamer bound for this port afford proof, if nineteen responsible passengers are to be believed, that the gates are by no means as tightly closed to immoral persons as they ought to be.

The immigration figures for the year are of a kind to cause solicitude. Of a total of 921,000, including some 600,000 aliens not of the immigrant class, the enormous number of 672,000 came from Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia. These are aliens, indeed, in a sense in which the word cannot fairly be applied to the German and Scandinavian immigrants. The Northern immigrants come with a conscious intention of becoming Americans, and often with some knowledge of what that implies. The Russians, Austrians, and Italians arrive with but very vague ideas of bettering their condition, and with absolutely no sense of what republican institutions mean. They are, as soon as naturalized, easy game for the political organizer, and will be, when once they get beyond the grade of manual labor, plastic material for the union agitator. For the four great immigration years beginning with 1900, and including this year, the total immigration from these three countries has been 1,680,848, or 2 per cent. of our entire population. Evidently the problem of assimilating this mass is a serious one. It takes, roughly speaking, a period of forty years for assimilation to become complete, and immigration at the rate of a million a year for forty years would be formidable indeed. But there is every reason to believe that, just as German and British immigration dropped sharply after 1893, and has continued to diminish, so the present flood from Austria, Italy, and Russia will in turn decrease.

The really striking fact about the Stock Exchange failures is that failures should have been so long delayed. Depreciation of values, during the four past months, has been exceptionally great, and since bankers and brokers use their security holdings as a basis for further borrowing, a shrinkage of 20 or 30 per cent. in the value of such collateral means that the amount thus cut from values must be made up by selling or pledging other securities. The absence of insolvencies, therefore, means either that stock brokers as a class have been borrowing very little recently, or else that they had abundant reserve resources still unpledged. As a matter of fact, both suppositions are correct if applied to the Stock Exchange as a whole. Both brokers and customers had their danger-signal eight or nine months ago, and both took the warning properly to heart, retiring prudently from the speculative market. It is also true that the windfalls of recent years have left the bank accounts of Wall Street commission houses well provided against the present time of need. This, and the very intelligent attitude of the "outside public," during the past two years, explain why, even with the long decline and the multiplying failures, nobody talks of such a thing as "panic."

Probably the last man whom the Democratic machine in Missouri would think

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of nominating for Governor is Circuit Attorney Folk, but he may yet be nominated. The Kansas City *Times* prints a list of seventy-nine rural newspapers of the State which have come out in favor of Mr. Folk's nomination, and it is said that the list is growing daily. The Circuit Attorney began sending his party associates to jail very soon after he was elected. He turned a deaf ear to those who spoke to him of "gratitude" to those who elected him, or of the hope of political preferment in the future. In fact, he committed what the politicians describe in awesome tones as "political suicide." They told him that after this he could not be elected even a justice of the peace, but he replied that it made no difference so long as he did his duty as Circuit Attorney. In the face of advice, threats, and pleadings of all sorts, he went ahead collecting evidence against evil-doers and making them pay the price of their misdeeds. And now, strange to say, it is discovered that his "political suicide" was all a mistake, and that he may live to be the next Governor of Missouri.

The first bye-election in England since Mr. Chamberlain flung his bomb can be interpreted only as a rude blow to his hopes. Not only did the Conservative vote at Barnard Castle fall off, but the adverse polling was so heavy that even with the Opposition split into two factions the Chamberlain candidate was unable to slip in. The fact that the successful man was a labor candidate is also full of ominous significance for the Colonial Secretary. He has made his bid especially to workingmen. Their wages he was going to increase by protective tariffs, while their old age he was to provide for by pensions out of the huge surplus that was to be heaped up. But in this particular constituency, at any rate, the laborers not only refused to be captured by his blandishments, but turned in and elected their own representative over his head. The result will do much, we think, to help Mr. Balfour come to a "settled conviction" about preferential tariffs—a conviction that they spell political defeat.

With the passage of the London Education bill through the Commons, the whole of England and Wales has for the first time a comprehensive school system. Executive authority is lodged in the County Councils, subject, however, to the approval of the Central Board of Education. A real grievance in the bill is the fact that it takes in all the Church of England schools at the public expense, while it leaves such schools almost wholly in the hands of their private managers. Already this imposition has been resisted by the refusal of many dissenters to pay the school rates, and eventually the State must, in justice treat all public schools alike. Sir William Anson reported recently on the progress made in a year under the first Education bill. Some two-thirds of the County Councils had presented satisfactory programmes, and generally the new system was replacing the old without undue friction. From individual localities, where frequently the Church school is the only one, a different story is heard. Sir William Anson showed a wholly conciliatory spirit towards such complainants. But, as the school system develops, it will become apparent that many of the weaker Church schools which are now thrown on the public funds should be secularized, or put back upon their own resources. In London, where the old School Board was singularly well-organized and successful, there will be much just resentment at the transfer of authority to the County Council. If that body will have the wisdom to use old members of the board on the borough and local committees, the application of the new system will be facilitated. All in all, the country will gain by the Education act—not that the system is a good one, but that any system was preferable to the old confusion of authority. Time will make Mr. Balfour's bargain with the Bishops about the Church schools seem not only unjust, but intolerable.

Mr. Wyndham's land-purchase bill, as it passed the third reading, last week, bore only a general resemblance to the original act. Mr. John Redmond and the Irish Secretary have debated the bill, clause by clause, and in most cases the Irish Secretary has cheerfully accepted Mr. Redmond's view. In this manner the clause which provided for a perpetual rent charge has been abolished; the minimum purchase price has been removed; the Government bonus extended to a much larger class of transactions than was at first contemplated, and the sporting rights made transferable to tenant purchasers. All these changes have had the common effect of favoring the peasant proprietors as against their landlords. If Mr. Wyndham has given the impression of being rather helplessly in the hands of his Irish friends, he yet deserves the heartiest congratulation for a patience, good humor, and tact not often exemplified on the Government benches. Only those who supposed that the land question and the Irish question were identical have reason to be disappointed. To such the expense of the law will appear out of proportion to its ulterior political benefits, which seem likely to be small. Mr. Redmond, with polished irony one must believe, thanks the Government for putting Ireland in a position to work advantageously for Home Rule. Prof. Goldwin Smith, an old Liberal Unionist, has recently, in the *Evening Post*, expressed despair of any solution short of independence. And even Mr. Balfour admits that the fight is yet to come, and only asks the Irish, in view of the removal of their worst material grievance, to fight fair.

A number of members of the Belgian Chamber of Deputies are preparing, it seems, a counter-blast to the recent House of Commons manifesto. This is to prove to the world that all the horrible revelations which have come out of the Congo Free State in the last five years are pure inventions. There is no such thing as impressing cannibals into the native army. Mr. Morrison's accounts of the native chief who dried eighty-one human hands over a fire to show that his officially inspired raid was successful; of the carloads of slaves he himself saw; of the cannibalism permitted by those wearing the Belgian uniform; of unrestrained massacres and wholesale pillaging of village after village—all these are pure fictions of the stout-hearted American missionary who has ventured to speak out. When Sir Charles Dilke declares the Free State an open sore, and Mr. Stead denounces the King of the Belgians as being "guilty of one of the most shameless breaches of trust of which a crowned head has ever been guilty," they are, of course, merely jesting. The main thing is, that the King and the great land monopolies which have divided up nearly the whole of the Free State among themselves shall continue undisturbed in their process of imposing the benefits of a superior civilization upon the natives, and at the same time filling their own pockets.

The official Belgian replies to the charges of cruelty in the Congo Free State remind one of those which emanated from Washington in regard to the water-cure tortures. For years the Belgian Government denied the existence of any outrages. Then it set on foot bogus investigations, even sending out a commission of Protestant and Catholic missionaries, who could not see the wrongs before their eyes. Now we learn that the Government "regrets the existence of sporadic cases of cruelty and wrongdoing." Well it may, in the face of such strong testimony to the gross abuses under Belgian rule as has been given by the Rev. W. M. Morrison. This he now repeats in the current *Review of Reviews*. In time, Mr. Morrison and the few like him who have dared to tell the truth may even get the Belgians to admit that the outrages have been more than "sporadic." Meanwhile, it is charged in Belgium that Mr. Morrison is complaining because he was denied certain privileges he asked for. This is the characteristic attitude of Imperialism. If you cannot refute your critic, proclaim that he is disgruntled, or that he desires to encourage your enemies, or that he would befoul his own nest. These and other stock phrases may be counted on to appear in all such cases.

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HOW TO PUT DOWN LYNCHING.

Scarcely had Prof. William James's acute analysis of the lynching mania got into type when another horrible example of it came to prove his words true. The skilled psychologist had said that lynching is now in this country "a profound social disease," and that it is "certain to become endemic in every corner of our country, North and South, unless heroic remedies are swiftly adopted to check it." He added that "the North is already almost as fully inoculated as the South," and predicted that such riots as that at Evansville might be expected any day in any other Northern city.

Danville, in Illinois, on Saturday fulfilled Professor James's prophecy almost as soon as it was published. This Northern city of 15,000 people, amply provided with schools and churches and newspapers, the home of the designated Speaker of the House of Representatives of the United States, suddenly found itself at the mercy of a bloodthirsty mob. It was the usual story. A negro accused of infamous crime; the officers of the law duly arresting him; a frenzied mob shrieking for his blood; collisions and murders in the streets; the jail attacked and a courageous sheriff fighting off the respectable miscreants; the latter rushing off to glut their fury on another negro, who was lynched with every circumstance of atrocity; the militia called out, and Danville saved by military rule from being sacked by its own citizens—it is the familiar and disgraceful round that was run. The same newspapers that make us sup on these horrors bring also news of two simultaneous lynchings in the South—one of them of a woman, the other of "the wrong negro"—and of another threatned and barely averted in Pennsylvania.

The whole phenomenon, with the steady march of lawlessness and ferocity to the North, is enough to stagger the stoutest patriot. We are in the presence of a new national peril. Senator Tillman is quite right in maintaining that lynching can no longer be said to be sectional. As a nation, we are disgraced by it. As a nation, we are also put in imminent danger by it. For let no man attempt to deceive the people with smooth words. Professor James is irrefragable. A plague worse than the cholera is upon us. Epidemic lawlessness, stamped all over with fiendish brutality, is a thousand-fold more to be dreaded than epidemic disease. There is no need to waste breath in either describing or denouncing the frightful evil. Every man not steeped in ignorance or lapped in delusion knows what it is—knows that it is not merely making us a hissing and scorn in the eyes of the world, but is undermining our own safety, and causing American society to revert to the time when no man knew at what moment a savage foe might not spring upon him from ambush. The time has passed to apologize for lynching, or even to explain it; and we must all unite to put it down if we would not see it topple all our laws and courts into the abyss.

That the sharpest and sternest measures against lynching mobs should everywhere be adopted by the officers of the law goes without saying. Professor James seems to desire some form of special legislation *ad hoc*. But there are laws enough. The statutes against murder are ample—and lynching is murder. If governors and sheriffs and police officers will enforce the present laws up to the hilt, we need ask no further enactments against lynchers. Let every officer who refuses to parley with the mob, and talks to it in the only language it can understand, receive a special meed of praise from his fellow-citizens. That sheriff in Danville who stood to his guns and disabled a dozen of the rioters, deserves well not only of his county and State, but of the entire nation. He did what he could to strike down an enemy more formidable than any foreign levy. It was upon the fanged head of the new domestic treason that he set his heel. If the citizens of Illinois know what becomes them at such a moment, they will find some means of testifying their gratitude to Sheriff Whitlock for his great public service. Sheriffs everywhere must be given to understand that this is what is expected of them. It is said that an "ungovernable homicidal instinct" takes possession of the mob; a vision of blood is before them. But if they are made to know that the blood will, in every case, be their own, and not that of a trembling and helpless victim, they will find a way to govern their instincts. It is good psychology as well as good patriotism which calls for the putting down everywhere of the lynching madness with an iron hand that knows no faltering.

But there is also a great duty laid upon every law-abiding citizen, whether directly in contact with the lynching spirit or not. He must do his part to bring about a correct state of public sentiment. Against all forms of race discrimination he must set his face like a flint; for he will see, if he keeps his eyes open, that the prime initiative of all this shameful access of lynching has been, as Professor James says, the notion, which has spread with "appalling rapidity," that "any negro accused of crime is public spoil, to be played with as long as the fun lasts." This is the fruitful mother of all our woes. Even if we thought the negro always a brute beyond the pale of the law, we should be bound not to assert it, or ever to say thoughtlessly, "Served him right," since through the negro the licensed mob is striking at our national life, and no man will be safe if the thing goes on. So we affirm that every form of apologetic reference to the lynching mob is, as the case stands to-day, a kind of participation in the crime from which every good citizen will refrain. Let us hear no more about "passional crimes," and "If we were only in their places," or "Could we but see the woman's face." The terrible fact is that we are face to face with a kind of national dementia. We are in danger of going mad. An individual over whom such a peril hangs observes the strictest regimen. So must the nation. We must all desist from countenancing, even in our private speech, even in our secret thoughts, anything but the severest and most sweeping condemnation of lynching. Only so can we nerve the officers of the law to do their duty and prevent all our institutions from tumbling into the pit. In the present hour of peril from furious mobs driven by wild obsessions, we can only denounce as a recreant any man who is able to find words of extenuation or tolerance for them.

THE SENSE OF PUBLIC OBLIGATION.

Recent exposures of the varied activities of some of our leading statesmen have revealed a dulled sense of the obligation attaching to public office. "Do you want me to be a drone?" indignantly demanded Congressman Hull in the House of Representatives, when called upon to explain his connection with timber purchases in the Philippines. Congressman Littauer would doubtless echo the scornful inquiry, and so would Mr. Driggs of Brooklyn. A host of less painfully conspicuous public servants would sustain them in chorus, including those "literary" Congressmen, Grosvenor and Richardson. A Congressman receives a pitiful salary of $5,000 a year. Does anybody think he can live on that? Besides, men who get elected to high office are certain to be men of force and restless energy. They must be active; they must be up and doing. Shall they turn their back on business opportunities merely because they are in a public position? If they are lawyers, shall they refuse retainers? To some of them the very idea seems absurd; to others it is disquieting. Considerable confusion regarding the whole matter exists also in the public mind.

It is in the legislative branches of government that the question presents itself most frequently and with the greatest urgency. We know of United States Senators who, during their term of service—not only while Congress is in session, but also in recess—steadily refuse to be employed by corporations which they would, under different circumstances, be glad to serve. On the other hand, there are many Senators who frequently accept such employment during the intervals between sessions,

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and occasionally even while the Senate is sitting. The view of the first sort is that they must be absolutely removed from all personal interest in corporation affairs, since these may at any moment become subjects of proposed legislation. The view of the other kind is that, so long as they do not neglect their legislative duties, they have a perfect right to continue their ordinary pursuits; and they feel competent to hold themselves free from bias notwithstanding. There is, of course, a third class, which need not be discussed, since the endeavor of its members is not so much to avoid falling below even well-established ethical standards as to escape the provisions of the Penal Code.

Many of the nicer scruples thus raised must in the end be referred to the conscience of the individual. The public, if it ever hears of it, may applaud the Senator who refuses the corporation retainer; but there is now no open complaint of the Senator who accepts it. Even in less doubtful cases, where, for instance, a Congressman successfully evades the law about Government contracts but is clearly a party to one, though nominally and legally not so, the public is powerless to get at him immediately and effectively, except through his sensibilities. But not every man who dodges legal penalty is entitled to escape public censure. If for some technical reason the law cannot step in, the legal impunity imposes no obligation to look upon it as a moral acquittal. A contrary opinion, we are aware, is prevalent, but it rests on no sound basis. The man who pleads that the statute of limitations has relieved him of responsibility for a misdemeanor, is entitled to be set free, but society has a right, even a duty, to draw its own conclusions.

In other words, two classes of obligation are accepted by the man who takes public office. One is legal, and will be enforced by the courts; the other is moral, and will be enforced by his conscience and by public sentiment. The extent to which the latter affects his conduct will, of course, depend upon his own enlightenment and that of the community. The moral obligation can be violated without conflict with the courts. The legal obligation, on the other hand, being a statutory expression of the more crude and patent of the ethical considerations involved, cannot be broken save by utter disregard of the moral.

What course, then, must a public officer pursue? First, he must obey the law. We hear the excuse made for the Littauers and the Gaffneys and the Driggses that, after all, they have only "technically" violated the law, if at all. But, we ask, in order technically to violate the law, what amount of moral obligation have they not cut through ruthlessly? The Federal law says that a Congressman may not be interested directly or indirectly in a contract with the United States, but that he may be a stockholder in a corporation which is interested in such a contract. This may not strike one as a particularly intelligent distinction, but it is the law. Shall we, consequently, ask a kindly public sympathy for one who becomes legally involved simply because he failed to incorporate his company and thus get around the law? Or shall we merely regard the letter of the law as the whole of his obligation, and be content with holding him rigidly to that? Loose thinking lies back of all our loose practice in these matters. The times call for the nicest sense of honor on the part of public men. Especially in such a get-rich-quick epoch as the present, do we need to hold up the standards of an elder and severer day—of an Adams and a Bayard. A commercial age laughs at their nice scrupulosity in dividing the private business interest from that of the commonwealth; but it is the only salt which can keep our public life sweet.

EMERGENCY CIRCULATION.

Senator Lodge's interview with President Roosevelt has led to a fresh discussion of plans for currency legislation at the next session of Congress. All that the President said was, that he hoped the subject would be brought up for early consideration. He had said as much or more last spring in a written communication to the President of the American Bankers' Association. That body, at its convention last November, had provided for the appointment of a committee to report a plan for currency reform to be presented at its next annual meeting, and President Roosevelt had taken occasion a few months later to express, in a private way, his general concurrence in the movement and his hope that it might lead to some beneficial result. His position now is little more than a repetition of what he said in that communication, and also in a speech made subsequently at Keokuk, Iowa. In the latter he spoke of the want of elasticity in the currency as now constituted, and of the need of a change in the laws to secure "such expansion and contraction as will promptly and automatically respond to the varying demands of commerce."

This expression pointed to a concurrence in the principles rather of the House bill of last session—the Fowler bill—than of the Senate measure, commonly called the Aldrich bill. The former embraced a plan for banknote issues based upon the general assets of the banks, instead of bonds deposited in the Treasury. The latter provided for the substitution of State and railroad bonds of a certain grade in place of United States bonds as security for Government deposits in the banks, and made no change in the system of banknote issues. It was inferred by some persons that the Aldrich bill, if passed, would become a stepping-stone for a change in the national bank system, substituting the same classes of bonds as security for note issues.

Both the Fowler bill and the Aldrich bill failed in the last Congress. In the meantime a new factor has entered the House of Representatives. Mr. Cannon of Illinois has been selected by the dominant party for the Speakership, and he is said to be opposed to any currency legislation at all. It is possible for him to organize the committees against currency reform. He may block the way for both the Fowler bill and the Aldrich bill. Another obstacle to currency legislation will be the hesitancy of the Republican leaders to take any definite step on the eve of a Presidential election. Against this inertia, born of timidity, the President's pushing, if he should push, might prove as ineffectual as his urgency for Cuban reciprocity was in the last Congress.

Yet the President's suggestion is backed by a considerable public demand for what is commonly called "emergency circulation." This term is not clearly defined in the minds of those who use it. Emergencies are of all kinds and dimensions, and may occur at any time. They may be of considerable importance and urgency without attracting any public notice. They may be coincident with the harvest season—they most commonly are—but they may come midway between two such seasons. If there be such a thing as a normal circulation, any deviation from it is an emergency, greater or less. Therefore, those who desire an emergency circulation should ask for one which will be responsive to all the variations of demand for currency, large or small, and that is what the Fowler bill and other measures proposed for "assets currency" seek to supply. Yet the popular desire for an emergency circulation does not go quite so far. It has in contemplation only the larger emergencies, the more pressing demands, such as the harvest season or an unexpected panic brings.

Most bankers and even some economists would draw a line between normal and emergency circulation by imposing a heavy tax on all note issues in excess of 60 or 80 per cent. of the bank's capital. They would allow banks to discount commercial paper to the extent of four or five times their capital (as they generally do), provided the liability so incurred is in the form of deposits. They consider a bank's liability in the form of notes far more dangerous to the bank itself and to the community than the same liability in the form of deposits. This is a superstition handed down to us from a former generation. In fact, the note liability is less dangerous to the bank than the de-

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posit. The danger in either case consists in the chance of a demand for payment made suddenly and unexpectedly. In every emergency the notes lie scattered in the hands of the public. The very occasion which calls them out is a demand for purposes of circulation. So long as the emergency lasts, it will be difficult to collect notes for presentation at the bank's counter. Deposits, on the other hand, exist in solid masses. They can be drawn *en bloc*. In times of emergency they are liable to be so drawn. The bank, if called upon to pay its deposits in an emergency, would be very glad to have its customers drawing its notes instead of depleting its reserves of legal tender. A check drawn for $100,000, for example, if paid in cash, weakens the bank so much. If paid in the bank's notes, there has been a mere change in the form of liability, which can have no disturbing effect on the cash reserve until the notes have performed their office in the circulation and returned to the bank, which will commonly be some weeks later. Therefore, the theory that any note issues in excess of 50 per cent. or some other per cent. of a bank's capital ought to be heavily taxed is based on a misconception, or on popular doubt as to whether all banks would use their new powers wisely and conservatively. Yet it will probably be found in the foreground of any legislation for "assets currency."

OUR CHAOTIC FOOD LAWS.

Professor Wiley's report on his "poison-squad" experiments is not to be made public, it seems, until October. But last week, in an address at St. Paul, he made it pretty plain that they have only confirmed the position of the German Government—namely, that the use of food preservatives is harmful to health. Some preservatives, at any rate, Professor Wiley admits to be "deleterious," and he urges legislation, both national and State, to prevent food adulteration and the use of pernicious preservatives.

The safeguards provided by the new law against impure or falsely labelled foods and wines imported from abroad are, indeed, in striking contrast with the inadequate and confusing statutes which are supposed to protect us from adulterated and injurious food products at home. By the act which went into effect on July 1, the Secretary of Agriculture is clothed with authority to confiscate any shipments of objectionable foreign foods at the Custom House, although, in the Attorney-General's opinion, his jurisdiction does not apply to such as are imported in the pure state, and adulterated or falsely branded afterwards. It is a law which, wisely and thoroughly enforced, should shield effectually the customers of the "fancy grocery store."

Meanwhile, how do we stand with reference to domestic products, compared with which imported food is trifling in quantity? Many of the States, especially in the East, have food laws. Some have good laws, earnestly enforced; some good laws with no machinery to carry them out; some lax laws, and some no laws at all. There is no uniformity except in so far as the States have copied one another's statutes. It is a remark of Professor Wiley, Chief of the Department of Agriculture's Bureau of Chemistry, that a food manufacturer requires the services of a lawyer to see that the laws of the different States are complied with merely in the matter of printing labels. Take the case of a jam or a jelly containing glucose in place of cane sugar: in Ohio or Massachusetts its label must show the exact proportion of each ingredient according to analysis. In Minnesota, the label "adulterated mixture" must be affixed to this same jam, in Pennsylvania "compound," and in Illinois "imitation." In New York State, the law can be complied with by the declaration in fine type around the edge of the label in the guise of an ornamental border that the preserve "contains a small amount of corn syrup [glucose] to prevent crystallization." It is often illegal to sell in one State a product which was put up in strict conformity with the law of its next neighbor.

Toward remedying this chaotic condition, Congress has done almost nothing. The Hepburn National Pure Food bill, which passed the House last winter, reached the Senate late in the session and died there. At the demand of the dairy interests, however, a discriminating tax was placed on oleomargarine colored as butter is colored, though this is a perfectly wholesome article of food. Protection against one form of deception is also afforded by the act which makes it a misdemeanor to introduce into any State a dairy or food product falsely labelled as to the locality of its production. This law was introduced by Representative Sherman of this State, and was designed especially to prevent the branding of cheeses produced elsewhere, as the famous "New York full cream cheese." So far as the national law is concerned, it makes no difference whether the product is or is not really a full cream cheese, provided it were made in New York.

The fortified wines, then, the borax-preserved sausage, the reimported cottonseed oil masquerading in the guise of "pure olive," and the French peas colored with copper, Congress is resolved to keep from our tables. It does not concern itself with the "pure maple sugar" which never saw a maple tree, the "comb honey" made of paraffin and the indispensable glucose, the low-grade flour whitened with alum, the dilute acetic acid which passes as vinegar, the red wood and charred peanut shells in spice boxes, or the strawberry jam made of flavored and tinted glucose and gelatin mixed with timothy seed, all of which are domestic products. The workingman may be sure that his *petits pois* and cognac are all that could be desired, however much doubt there may be as to his bread and salt.

The consumer of impure food is cheated even when he is not poisoned. If he wishes to economize by using oleo or the euphemistic "corn syrup" on his table, that is his own concern, but it is unfair to both manufacturers and buyers if these things can be put on the market as maple sugar and butter. If all the States had good food laws and enforced them, a national law might be unnecessary. As it is, one of the chief difficulties of city health departments is to hunt down the impure food products brought in from other localities. It is comparatively easy to hold the manufacturers to account, and a single rigid inspection of a factory may result in keeping back from the market large quantities of deleterious food products. It is a very different matter to seize a half-dozen packages of this same food at a corner grocery store, and then throw the responsibility back upon the maker who may have violated no law of his own State. The national statute would not only stop shipments of the harmful commodities from one State to another, but would also furnish a model for those States which have not yet passed food laws of their own.

KNOWING ABOUT THINGS.

President Eliot has published his notable address, "The New Definition of the Cultivated Man," in *Science*. This choice of a medium recalls the late Gen. Francis A. Walker's assertion that his scientific graduates of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology were as liberally educated as the average college man, while it emphasizes President Eliot's well-known views on the value of science in culture. From his main theses, that culture depends upon a proper balance of interest between nature and man, that it presupposes some knowledge of science, and some acquaintance with languages and literatures, no dissent is possible. His view of the availability of the whole "store of knowledge," however, is more questionable. He points out how until recent times the idea of an all-round education has been cherished. To-day, says President Eliot of the whole store of knowledge:

> "It is too vast for any man to master, though he had a hundred lives instead of one; and its growth in the nineteenth century was greater than in all the thirty preceding centuries put together. . . . Culture, therefore, can no longer imply a knowledge of everything—not even a little knowledge of everything. It must be content with general knowledge of some things, and a real mastery of some small portion of the human store."

Obviously, these words are intended to apply to collegiate education. They

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imply, first, a law of sacrifice—limitation of studies; second, a law of concentration—mastery of one. As regards life as a whole, both laws are a truism; as regards college studies, the law of sacrifice is an illusion, and the law of concentration a fetish. That is, in any proper interpretation of the words, the college student may still take all knowledge for his province, while it is equally true that in his college years he may not hope to attain mastery of any one subject. The paradox is only apparent. Whatever have been the ramifications of special research, the liberal and exact sciences are still reducible to a few types. It has not yet come to the point that we cannot see the forest of the Muses for the trees. No complete enumeration of studies is necessary here, but it is plain that under mathematics, physics, chemistry, biology, geology, and botany, language and literature, history and economics, psychology, ethics, philosophy, the main types are compris ed. It is needless to say that any subdivision of any one of these subjects is a field for a life work; but it is equally true that a reasonably clever lad can study something under each head and learn, in a school and college course, what a cultivated man needs to know about the great divisions of human knowledge.

The difficulty is that educators will not admit the value of knowing about things. They remember the Misses Bertram of Mansfield Park, who knew little more than the rhymed chronology of the British Kings, and insist upon real knowledge. That they take to be, for example, the knowledge which a lineman, an Edison, or a Lord Kelvin has of electricity. But little of that, from the point of view of college education, is real —that is, reasonably attainable—knowledge. Our student knows sufficiently about electricity when he has a general acquaintance with its theory, and has seen or even made a few typical experiments. The professor who cannot teach a class as much as this in a few weeks is unworthy of his pittance. This modicum of electrical instruction, if it is given understandingly, will enable the student to know what the linemen, Edison and Lord Kelvin are about. An electrician would need to know vastly more; no cultivated man should know less.

So all studies, if they be taught in their broader and more philosophical aspects, are at the student's disposal nearly as much as they ever were. On the other hand, no study can possibly be mastered by a student in the college years. Take the most favorable case: every student before the elective and group systems had been invented knew something about Latin literature. Would the most optimistic professor in Harvard itself assert that the young man who in school and college had passed his eleven years of Latin, really *knew* Latin literature? With a reasonable concentration we have no quarrel, but the "mastery" of which President Eliot speaks comes certainly not in the college, and hardly in the professional school; it comes only in the greater university of the world, and it may be regarded rather as a product of culture than as its condition. In college one is fortunate to get so much as a clear inclination for mastery along a definite line.

Clearing our mind of misapprehension as to the unwieldiness of the store of knowledge, and of impractical ideas about "mastery," we come to the real problem of college education, which is: Shall something be taught about many things, or somewhat more be taught about a few things? It is at bottom a choice between an education of larger or smaller scraps, and there is no reason for assuming that the larger scraps afford the better mental pabulum. No gourmet would commend a dinner which, at the sacrifice of bread, olives, and salad, offered heroic portions of pudding and roast beef. But we fear that education is in danger of yielding to some such fallacy. Where the student has any marked bent for a single branch of study, he may perhaps safely choose for himself; only the smallest part of our undergraduates have it in any pronounced form. They will drink of the Heliconian fount, but you must coax or flog them up to it. Under these conditions, does it not seem likely that the old discursive ideal of an education including all the main branches of human learning is still of value?

No sensible person would look over an audience of the engaging young men who fill our colleges and find the audacity to bid them achieve "mastery" by senior year. Should he tell them that they were to learn about a great number of things and so far as possible were to draw upon the whole store of knowledge, he would set forth an ideal at once pedagogically practicable and likely to attract the ever generous and curious imagination of youth. But no such appeal will be made until persons of academic importance see that, while to know things is the privilege of a few, to know about many things is valuable for all of us—including even college students.

A LIBRARY OF LIBRARIES.

At the recent meeting of the American Library Association, Mr. George Iles, whose services to critical cataloguing have won him the gratitude of many readers, made a plea, now published in pamphlet form, for a headquarters for the Association. By gaining such a home the Association, which now conducts an occasional dress parade, would organize itself into a working staff to direct and promote library interests throughout the country all the year round. Such an institution as a repository of all kinds of information on preserving and circulating books would be a library of libraries. Its usefulness will appear as its various departments are enumerated.

At headquarters would naturally be collected all manner of information about library buildings—photographs, plans, and description of furnishings. Thus a great number of examples to follow or to avoid would be furnished to library committees; and in order that the profusion of material should not cause bewilderment, the central officials would appraise each building from the point of view of library economy, pointing out in detail its advantages and defects. In some of our greatest library buildings the architects have signally failed to grasp the practical needs of the situation. Clearly it would be well if, before putting pencil to paper, every architect with a library to build should first seek the fountain-head of modern library lore. Undoubtedly, the necessary materials would be sent on liberal conditions to those who could not make the pilgrimage in person.

In its department of administration the general staff would merely continue under more favorable circumstances the work already excellently begun by the American Library Association. Here one approaches mystery. The layman must be content to believe that the science of classification grows wider and deeper with the process of the suns, and he must accept on faith, too, that gentle moral suasion by which communities are weaned from the novelette and put upon adult diet of poetry, history, and biography. Again, the competing claims of book-stack and open shelves may not be weighed by the inexpert. But there is doctrine for all these matters, and a central authority alone could hope to build up a set of dogmas sufficiently flexible and exact to have authoritative weight. It is certain that the broad lines of library polity might be established by such a body, and many defects due to inexperience and the absence of authorities done away with.

Naturally, Mr. Iles spoke in behalf of the work with which his name is peculiarly associated—that of appraisal of books. This means, in short, that beyond the usual indications, library catalogues should briefly characterize each book and estimate its value. A good beginning has been made in Mr. J. N. Larned's creditable work, 'The Literature of American History,' but Mr. Iles looks forward to a time when all "working books" shall be thus appraised. As things are to-day, the average reader is helpless before the list of hundreds of titles under each subject head. A note on each catalogue card giving the character of the book would yield the assistance now necessarily imperfectly supplied by the library attendants. But evidently the preparation of such criti

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cal notes requires expert skill and involves considerable expense. Probably no single library could afford to undertake it. A central library committee, however, could do this useful work for the country at large—issuing either the complete "appraisal" cards or pasters to be used on the present library cards. As literature accumulates upon all subjects, such evaluation becomes increasingly more imperative. It could be managed nowhere so economically as by a committee with specialist collaborators, which might reasonably hope to sell its cards and catalogues throughout the country.

Finally, the proposed general library staff might coördinate and control the work of library extension. "Travelling libraries" are already familiar to our readers. Circulating Art Exhibitions, composed of carefully selected reproductions of fine examples, have been inaugurated with success by several States. There is a comic suggestion about the "circulating lecture," but the thing itself is sensible enough. Carefully prepared lectures with the necessary lantern slides are sent about, and the lecture is read by a member of the local association. One might feel that it would be far better to select for illustration essays and printed lectures from standard literature; but as to the general practicability of the plan there is no doubt. At the central repository are kept slides and manuscripts, and the lectures are usually accompanied by a small collection of books on the subject of the course. Last winter, Professor Penhallow, from his headquarters at Montreal, thus conducted free lectures in fifty-one towns, villages, mining, and lumber camps throughout the Dominion. It is highly desirable that some skilled body should have the care of all such movements, for nowhere is half-culture more out of place than in popular education. The people fare ill when they exchange carelessness of the things of the mind for the sentimentality of the faddist or the vulgarity of the intellectual quack. In all these matters a committee of library extension might exercise a very tonic influence.

Mr. Iles saves to the last his estimate of the cost and conditions of an effective Library of Libraries. Some great central library must give it, if not house room, at least the freedom of the premises; and some benefactor or benefactors must start it with an endowment of a million dollars. When the usefulness of such an institution is once fully understood, we do not anticipate any difficulty on either score.

FREE TRADE AND PROTECTION IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, July 16, 1903.

England has for well-nigh sixty years pursued, alone among the civilized States of the world, a policy of free trade. In 1903 a Government whose special mission it has been to maintain the union with Ireland and to carry through the war with the Boers in South Africa, have proposed to the English people to reconsider their ways and to examine whether it be not expedient to adopt a protective tariff. This is the salient feature of English public life. With the personal and transitory aspects of a serious crisis it is not my intention to deal at all. Nor do I propose to restate the arguments used for or against a momentous revolution in the traditional policy of England; it is idle to repeat things which, thanks to newspapers and telegraphs, are as well and as soon known in New York as in London. My wish is to analyze some of the causes that have produced in England a revolution of opinion which is really strange, and presents the appearance, though only the appearance, of suddenness. It is fair to warn your readers that I look at the matter in hand from the point of view of one who, though not in any strict sense an economist, accepts the general doctrine of free trade, and, as a constitutionalist, is convinced that preferential tariffs are far more likely to dissolve than to increase the unity of the British Empire.

To what causes, then, are we to attribute the revival of the protectionist creed? They may be brought under three heads.

(1.) The so-called revival is, as often happens, in truth a survival.

When, some ten or fifteen years ago, the demand arose that free trade should be exchanged for fair trade, Dr. Dale of Birmingham, I am told, said to John Bright: "We shall have to fight the battle of free trade over again." The orator of the Anti-Corn-Law League dissented, and held that the nation had been converted from protection in 1846. "No," retorted Dr. Dale, "the protectionists were not converted, they were thrashed." For the accuracy of this anecdote I cannot vouch; but I am certain that the dictum of the Birmingham preacher contains a truth constantly overlooked by politicians. By a salutary fiction of public life, the voice of the majority is treated as the voice of the nation; but we are too apt to forget that a useful fiction is not the same thing as a fact. A defeated minority is not a minority which has ceased to exist; and even the majority of any party—in this instance of free traders—contains individuals who, though they assent to a particular course of action, as, *e. g.*, the repeal of the corn laws, do not necessarily accept the principles on which a policy is defended by its thorough-going adherents. This was certain to be the case as regards the repeal of the corn laws. It required no careful study of political economy to perceive the practical inexpediency of a tax on the bread of the poor which raised the rents of the rich; and common sense condemned fiscal arrangements which added bitterness to the almost inevitable hostility between poverty and wealth. The prophet or rhetorician who invented the nickname of the "dismal science," himself (if I mistake not) condemned protection.

Free trade, further, involves in itself a paradox. Every man engaged in business, be he farmer or merchant, knows, or fancies he knows, that if his own business were protected he would be the gainer. It takes some thought to realize that arrangements which would be a gain to each man separately, may bring loss on the whole nation. The benefits, in short, of protection are obvious; its evils, though real, are latent. Even when free trade was triumphant, there remained much latent protectionism, and the real converts to the doctrine of free exchange were naturally and reasonably obtained not so much by the force of argument as by the weight of authority. The economists of sixty years ago were convinced free traders.

(2.) A curious combination of circumstances has diminished the authority of economical experts, and has taken from the argument in support of free trade much of its rhetorical impressiveness.

The experts are no longer unanimous, they are no longer dogmatic and confident. We have heard much in the field of theology of the disintegration of beliefs, and of the scepticism of which this disintegration is the cause. It has been insufficiently observed that what is true in the sphere of theology holds good in other spheres of thought. Dogmatic systems of all kinds have, under the dissolving influence of absolutely free discussion, tended to break up. Bodies of economical doctrine have lost their coherence. When Mill pointed out that protection may, under peculiar circumstances, be a benefit to a country, he went far further than he intended or realized to shake the faith in free trade. When a later writer of eminence declared that there are no "fixed principles" in legislation, he fostered, whether he intended it or not, fundamental scepticism.

To ordinary men, dogmas and axioms are intelligible and attractive. General statements which are cut down by qualifications, limitations or exceptions are to the crowd unintelligible. It is, in short, confidence, not candor, which creates proselytism; the hesitation of teachers means the scepticism of disciples. Then, too, the state of the world has changed greatly during the half century. No one can blame Cobden and his associates for failing to anticipate the effect of steamships and telegraphs in bringing different parts of the world nearer together. Still less could any man be expected to foresee in 1845 the rise of great states such as United Germany or United Italy. The result, however, has been that some of the definite anticipations of free traders have met with disappointment. The example of England as a great free-trade state has not induced other nations to forego protection; and English farmers whose fathers were told that they would not suffer from free trade, know that, as a fact, the corn growers of Essex are compelled to compete with the corn growers of Illinois. It is hardly necessary to add that, in accordance with the most ordinary laws of human nature, whilst the inconveniences or the losses caused by free trade are vividly felt, the evils which flowed from protection are forgotten.

(3.) The revival of the protectionist creed has been encouraged by the actual course of English legislation during the last thirty or forty years.

Free trade is merely a marked illustration of the policy, so often successful and so constantly descried, of *laissez faire*. Now English statesmen—and this remark applies to politicians of all parties—have shown, rightly it may be in many cases,

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less and less faith in the wisdom of leaving things alone; they have encouraged the natural tendency of all men, and especially of the poor, to rely for their prosperity or comfort not on self-help, but on State aid. Trade in labor has become, under the Factory Acts, a matter of State regulation. Year by year it has become more difficult to enforce the rigid principles of the Poor Law; hardly is the attempt made to restrain outdoor relief; wholly is the hope, certainly entertained by the reformers of 1834, that outdoor relief might entirely come to an end, given up. The politician would be deemed a madman who should avow that the Poor Law itself is a necessary evil, and an evil admitting of ultimate abolition. In Ireland the price of land is fixed not by the haggling of the market, but by courts and commissioners. The State, in effect, compels employers to insure their workmen against accidents, and leading statesmen hold out to artisans the hope of old-age pensions. Under the Agricultural Holdings Acts a tenant is not even allowed to make his own bargain as to the terms on which he will hire land. Many politicians listen with favor to the demand for a compulsory eight-hour working day; and the man who dares to say that the price of labor, like that of other commodities, depends upon demand and supply, who murmurs a word in favor of Malthusianism, or who hints that picketing may be an undue interference with individual liberty, is supposed to believe in obsolete shibboleths, and has assuredly no chance of securing a seat in Parliament.

It is not my business nor my intention to argue that all or any of the laws or ideas to which I have referred are opposed to the public welfare. Some of them, at any rate, are, in my judgment, beneficial. What I wish to bring home to the readers of the *Nation* is that these laws and ideas are all inconsistent with the doctrine of *laissez faire*, and all tend towards Socialism. One thing is certain: Socialistic legislation creates an atmosphere favorable to the growth of protection.

A change, then, of sentiment which is probably, however, not so widespread as it may at first sight appear, is not really sudden, but is the tardy result of causes which have been operating for more than a generation.

AN OBSERVER.

GREEK ART AT THE BURLINGTON FINE ARTS CLUB.

LONDON, July 13, 1903.

A remarkable exhibition of works of Greek art, gathered almost entirely from private collections in England, is now open at the Burlington Fine Arts Club. The exhibition is due to the labors of an excellent committee, and especially to the taste and energy of Mrs. S. Arthur Strong (formerly Miss Eugénie Sellers). Mrs. Strong is also the author of the greater part of the excellent catalogue. In this work she was aided by Mr. Cecil Smith and Professor Furtwängler. Mr. G. F. Hill describes the coins, and Mr. Charles Newton-Robinson the gems, except in so far as Mr. Arthur Evans, Mr. N. Story-Maskelyne, and Professor Furtwängler describe the gems which they respectively exhibit, and Mrs. Strong for special reasons describes six gems. An illustrated edition of the catalogue, at the price of four guineas, is to be published by subscription. Of the hundred exhibitors all but five are English, and of the five foreigners two, Mr. E. P. Warren and Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan, are Americans. Mr. Warren exhibits sixty-two gems and thirteen other monuments of various kinds, while Mr. Morgan lends the exhibition eleven works, chiefly bronzes. The works exhibited cover the period from the close of the sixth century B. C. to the Augustan Age, and among them are some which would ordinarily be classed as Roman rather than Greek. But, as Mrs. Strong remarks, these works, if not actually of Greek manufacture, are the products of Greek artistic tradition, and should not be excluded from an exhibition designed to illustrate the life and influence of Greek art. Some Etruscan works also are included for similar reasons.

Almost every object exhibited is an exceptionally fine specimen of its kind, so that a selection of those that can be mentioned in a short letter must be made more or less at haphazard. One of the best known and most beautiful works of sculpture is without doubt the head of Aphrodite in the Petworth collection. Mrs. Strong does not hesitate to call this an original work by Praxiteles. It certainly is Praxitelean in type, and it may well be fourth-century work; but the execution, especially the treatment of the hair, differs so much from that of the Hermes of Olympia as to make the ascription of the Aphrodite to Praxiteles himself somewhat doubtful. Another work of exceptional interest is a "marvellously beautiful" head of a young girl lent by Mr. Warren. The head, which is of the purest white Parian marble, was found at Chios, and two slight sketches of it were published by Studniczka, with a brief description, in the Athenian *Mittheilungen*, 1888, page 188. As it is soon to be republished and discussed by Mr. Marshall, a detailed description would be out of place here. Mrs. Strong, in the preface to her catalogue, regrets the transitory character of Mr. Warren's collection at Lewes. It may not be improper to hope that this head, "the subtlety of which brings it near to the achievements of the Renaissance," may at some future time grace an American museum. Another treasure from Mr. Warren's collection is a fine marble statuette of Heracles, a copy of Hadrian's time after a work ascribed by Furtwängler to Myron. A beautiful late archaic Attic head of Aphrodite, lent by Mr. T. Hymphry Ward, the superb bronze head of Apollo (Furtwängler, *Intermezzi*, pls. i.-iv.) lent by the Duke of Devonshire, a fine replica of the head of the "Westmacott Athlete" lent by Sir Edgar Vincent, and a remarkably fine example of a realistic head of the third century B. C., of the class formerly regarded as portraits of Seneca, deserve special mention. A large bronze statuette of winged Eros holding the socket of a torch in his extended left hand and springing forward with the toes of his right foot on the ground, is a fine example of the life of Greek art in the second or first century B. C. This admirable work was found at Boscoreale, and belongs to Mr. Morgan.

Unusual attention is attracted by a terra-cotta head of Zeus somewhat less than half life-size. It is said to have been found in Greece, and Athens is mentioned as the place of provenance. The description of this work is written by Professor Furtwängler, who says:

"It is a Greek work of the period of Pheidias (450-440 B. C.). Certain forms seem in the manner of Myron (the head, for instance); while, on the other hand, the infinite repose and still sublimity of the whole is rather in the spirit of Pheidias. . . . It may be conjectured that the head belonged to the model for a large statue. It is, in any case, by the hand of one of the first masters of Greece, and a work entirely *unique* in character; I know of nothing similar to or comparable with it."

The impression made by this head upon other beholders is by no means uniformly like that experienced by Professor Furtwängler. The composite nature of the work produces an effect of artificiality which arouses suspicion, and certain technical peculiarities, especially in the treatment of the hair at the top and back of the head, point to the nineteenth century after Christ as the most probable date of manufacture. The almost universal conviction among English connoisseurs is that the head is a forgery. This is, however, the only object in the entire exhibition which cannot be unhesitatingly accepted as genuine.

Among the small bronzes and miscellaneous objects exhibited are many of exceptional beauty and importance. Indeed, the standard maintained is so high that it would be useless to single out this or that specimen. The whole period from the sixth century B. C. to the Roman imperial epoch is represented, though much more than half of the bronzes exhibited (somewhat over one hundred in all) belong to the Hellenistic times. The terra-cottas are for the most part of the Tanagra period and style, and among them are some of the most charming specimens of that charming work. The vases (eighty-eight in all) are mostly black-figured and red-figured Attic ware, dating from 560 to 400 B. C. There are also fourteen Attic white lecythi and a few vases of other classes. One vase (No. 46) is a hydria with a representation of the "toilet of Aphrodite," in delicate red-figured style. This represents a class which Furtwängler has recently assigned to the Alexandrian period, though the date usually assigned is the end of the fifth or beginning of the fourth century B. C. Another interesting vase is an œnochoe covered with a white slip and decorated in black-figured technique with incised lines. Upon it is represented a tree in the branches of which a man is hiding from a lion and a boar that approach from either side. The work is of great delicacy and the representation realistic and true to nature. It is interesting to compare the figures on this vase with a small bronze boar and lion in much the same attitudes from Mr. Warren's collection. In general, it may be said that while the vases exhibited do not give a good idea of the entire history of Greek vase-painting and still less of vase-making, they are admirably selected specimens of the vase-painter's art at its best.

The coins exhibited are from the collections of Mr. Arthur Evans (1-211), Mr. John Ward (212-311), Sir Hermann Weber (312-428), and the Rev. S. A. Thompson Yates (429-437). Mr. Evans exhibits only coins of the western Greeks, and a few Cretan coins. No. 127 is a magnificent Syracusan decadrachm by the "new artist," the only other known specimen of which is

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that exhibited (No. 432) by Mr. Thompson Yates. Mr. Ward's Syracusan series supplements Mr. Evans's most admirably. Among Mr. Ward's other coins, those of the Macedonian and Syrian kings are especially noteworthy. Greece proper is best represented in the collection of Sir Hermann Weber, though he also exhibits fine specimens from Sicily and Italy and other parts of the Greek world. All the coins exhibited are fine specimens, and they belong, with few exceptions, to the period when Greek coinage was at its best.

The exhibition of engraved gems covers the long period from the "Mycenæan" era to the Augustan age, and even later. Mr. Arthur Evans contributes a case of 152 gems ranging in date from 3000 B. C. to Antoninus Pius; Mr. Story-Maskelyne's seventy specimens represent various stages from "island stones" to the time of Augustus; and the gems contributed by Mr. Cook, Professor Furtwängler, Mr. Newton-Robinson, Mr. Wallis, and Mr. Warren are for the most part, though by no means exclusively, Hellenistic and Roman. The new light which Mr. Evans's excavations at Cnossus have thrown upon pre-Hellenic civilization lends especial interest to the earlier gems here exhibited, but no student of the gem engraver's art could fail to be interested in the Asiatic gems contributed by Professor Furtwängler, and the remarkably fine specimens of Greek work in Mr. Warren's and Mr. Evans's cases. The entire exhibition of gems repays minute examination and is most instructive.

There are many miscellaneous objects which deserve careful study, but which cannot be mentioned here. The large cameo, however, formerly in the Bessborough collection, representing the heads of Claudius and Agrippina, cannot be omitted, for this superb work, showing clearly the Greek spirit animating the artist who represents the imperial Romans, is alone a complete justification of the course of the committee in including Roman works in an exhibition of Greek art. It may be well to mention also that three colored casts of fragments of stucco sculpture from the palace at Cnossus and a series of Cockerell's drawings are shown.

This exhibition is exceedingly popular, and the room of the Burlington Fine Arts Club is crowded by midday. It is to be hoped that this success will lead to further efforts. There are many works of Greek art hidden away in private houses, where they serve no useful purpose except as they may give their possessors an occasional moment of pleasure. If these could be occasionally exhibited in London, the gain would be—from this year's exhibition it already has been—great. Perhaps it is too much to expect that a loan exhibition of Greek art can be arranged anywhere in the United States, but there are some interesting monuments in private possession in America, and it may be permitted to hope that at some time and in some way they may be made of use to others than their owners.

HAROLD N. FOWLER.

Correspondence.

THE SOPHISTRY OF OPPRESSION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

RESPECTED FRIEND: In *Harper's Weekly* of the 11th instant, the editor defends and augments the popular clamor for the disfranchisement of the negroes in the United States in these terms:

"A repeal of the Fifteenth Amendment would leave the suffrage where the Constitution originally placed it, to wit, in the hands of the States. Such States as chose might give the suffrage to the negroes, just as they can, if they choose, give the suffrage to women. In those States which should withhold the suffrage from the negro, he would be no worse off than women are in all except four of the States. . . . The withholding of the suffrage would not deprive the negro of civil rights which are enjoyed by women in most of the States. His position would be precisely analogous to that occupied by many white men who lacked the property qualification which was prescribed for the franchise in most of the Northern States for many years after the formation of the Union."

If the editor had given the subject a moment of impartial reflection he would have perceived that a disfranchised race is in a very different position from that of the disfranchised women of a governing race. A disfranchised race necessarily involves a subject race and a governing race which is possessed of irresponsible power in respect to the disfranchised race. In other words, a disfranchised race, in a republic, is a race in a state of vassalage. But the women of each race are an integral factor of the race. The interests and the welfare of the women and of the men are identical and inseparable, and therefore the enfranchisement of the men of any race is virtually the enfranchisement of the women also. It is plain that the men and women of the same race bear a radically different relation to each other from the relation between two races. Possibly it would be better if women had the privilege of voting with the men; but, in the present order of things in the world, the men of each race are the public representatives of the race; and when a nation is composed of two distinct races, to deny the men of one of those races the right of representation in making and administering the laws that govern the nation, is practically to condemn that race to servitude. A little consideration would also have shown the editor that a property qualification for voting involves radically different principles from the disfranchisement of a race.

We are told in the same article:

"Nothing but the growing frequency in the Northern States of the new negro crime—by which is meant the crime against white women—and the conviction that this crime is due to the notion of political and social equality implanted by the gift of the suffrage, is likely to cause such a revolution of Northern sentiment as to lead to the wholesale disfranchisement of the blacks on the ground of their race or color."

Of course this only means that, except for the crime in question, the repeal of the Fifteenth Amendment would probably result in disfranchising the negroes in the Southern States, but not in the Northern. As nearly all the negroes are in the Southern States, the suggestion has very little significance, except in regard to this crime. On the other hand, there is not a scintilla of valid evidence that the enfranchisement of the negroes is the cause of this crime. It is not a crime of sentiment, but of brute lust and sensuality. It is not the result of exercising the intellect on political and social problems, but of giving an unbridled license to the animal passions. We are told by a Southern correspondent in *Harper's Weekly* of the 18th inst. that this crime was unknown in the days of slavery. This being so, it is clear that it is a result, not of the privilege of voting, but of emancipation. It is the result of the restraints of slavery being removed from a few extremely depraved and brutal human beings. Although the criminal may have been born since the system of slavery was abolished, he has inherited his brutal nature from brutal slaves, and that nature is now free from the restraints of slavery. To a superficial mind it may seem that the obvious remedy is a return to the system of slavery. But slavery is not a remedy at all. Slavery is only the covering of ashes which keeps a smouldering fire from breaking forth into a consuming conflagration. There is but one remedy, and that is the development of self-respect and self-restrained manhood in the negroes. This has been the only possible remedy from the beginning; and now it behooves the white people of the United States to examine themselves to see what they have done, and are doing, to promote, or to hinder, the development of self-respect and self-restrained manhood in the negroes. If the white man has yielded to false pride and prejudice and insisted on the negro's maintaining an attitude of obsequious servility, then let the white man remember that just so far as he has done this the guilt of the unspeakable crime in question is branded on his own forehead.

ISAAC W. GRISCOM.

PHILADELPHIA, 7th mo., 24th, 1903.

THE TEACHERS OF THE MOB.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article, "The Lynching Madness," brings up with uncomfortable force the suggestion that perhaps the blame for such a disgraceful moral level must be very widely spread.

When the war with Spain was threatening, a suggestion that the killing of Spaniards by the hundred was a poor way to obtain redress for the wrong of the *Maine*, when the Spanish Government had offered to make most humble amends, was met with scorn, and the advocates of war cried aloud for blood—for the spilling of blood in order to make our nation respected among its sisters. After Spain had been defeated, the claim that in trying to conquer a foreign people we were breaking with some of our oldest and best traditions, were violating the Declaration of Independence and the principles of our own Constitution, was met, as you have said more than once, by the boast that we had outgrown the Declaration of Independence; and even if it were against the theory of our Government, "We will do it anyhow."

If, then, we as a nation have thus departed from some of our most valued precedents; if we as a people have deliberately trodden upon some of our most honored laws, and have refused to abide in peace with a weak neighbor ready to make all possible reparation, can we expect to avoid the blame and disgrace that must follow? Are we reasonable to expect that such example, set by the nation, will not be followed by the masses?

How much is the man of education or of high social or business standing, who has

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approved such revenge and justified such lawlessness, above the ignorant mob howling for the life of the wretch? Has the citizen, has the official, who justifies the torture of a man who sees fit to struggle, in his own country, for that country's liberty, a shadow of a claim to superiority over the degraded lynchers who descend to the level of cruelty found in the savage Indian? The mob seems to have learned well the lesson taught by its betters—if *betters* they may still be called.

Yours, etc., F. J. LE MOYNE.

ISHAM, TENN., July 21, 1903.

THE WAR FOR THE UNION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of the 16th inst., in an article on "Political Agnostics," you say: "Our fathers went into that death struggle [the war for the Union] not merely to make an end of slavery, but to guarantee to the emancipated slaves every opportunity which a land of freedom can offer to any man."

I am sure that no one who remembers the political contest of 1860 and the succeeding events culminating in war can agree that "our fathers *went into*" that struggle with any intent to free the slaves or guarantee them anything. If the South had been overcome in the ninety days Secretary Seward talked about, or had not put up so stiff a fight, "our fathers" never would have approved the emancipation policy about which President Lincoln delayed till he could be sure he had the country with him.

Any one who sympathizes with you in the stand you are taking against the disfranchisement of the negro must wish that you had not mistaken the post-bellum sentiment of the North for that which existed before the war.—Yours very truly,

GORHAM D. WILLIAMS.

BOSTON, July 20, 1903.

[Our expression was too loose. Objects and means alike changed as the war proceeded. At the close of hostilities there was a general agreement that the complete extinction of slavery was necessary to prevent a recurrence of civil strife. Hence the Constitutional guarantees and the investment of the freedmen with the suffrage. After the lapse of nearly forty years, it becomes clear how superficial was the Northern anti-slavery sentiment at large which sustained Lincoln in his emancipation proclamation. Moral convictions and moral fervor are not easily transmissible from generation to generation. It must be now apparent that the homage hitherto paid to the Declaration of Independence owed more to the spectacle of the Revolution—to sires who "fought and bled"—than to any real comprehension or acceptance of the doctrine of liberty, equality, and fraternity.—ED. NATION.]

THE SUFFRAGE AGAIN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The remedy for the many evils flowing from a democratic form of government is to be found, according to Mr. Edwin B. Smith in a recent communication to the *Nation*, "not in less, but in more democracy." However political theorists may view the proposition, it is manifest that the average American—the man in the street—does not crave further extension of gratuitous suffrage. He doubts the wisdom of thrusting the ballot on the negro in the past; he is opposed to its extension to the Filipino without positive evidence of fitness; he scrutinizes jealously the political qualifications of the "greasers" in Arizona and New Mexico, and probably sympathizes (at least covertly) with the efforts of the South to limit the voting power of the ignorant and irresponsible blacks. He feels that we have been very generous in the past, and that it is about time to call a halt.

It has often been alleged, and taken for granted, that these views were held exclusively by the so-called upper classes, the "silk stocking" element of society. Careful study and observation for many years has convinced me that this is an error. I have had the good fortune to know personally and intimately a large number of workmen in the South Chicago steel mills, living among them, working beside them at the furnaces, carrying my tin dinner-bucket and standing my night shift with the rest. The skilled workman, as I have found him, is a thoroughly wide-awake, tolerant, sane, and conscientious man, with a large measure of self-respect and pride in his work. Abstruse speculations are not his forte, but what he sees with his own eyes and hears with his own ears he feels that he knows. The man who can roll a rail, build a boiler, set up structural iron for a bridge, a furnace, or a ship, has a low opinion of the man the sum total of whose skill and ambition is to shovel hematite into an iron barrow year after year, while the plant is enlarging and the company is hunting high and low for good men. Perfectly willing to extend the glad hand to the man who does ascend from the ranks of unskilled labor, the skilled workman counts him a nonentity until he does rise. In councils of the men looking to adjustment of hours of labor, wages, and similar matters the opinion of the unskilled laborer is not considered. He simply does not count. He has no vote, and nobody would dream of thrusting one on him. If he knows still less about the American Government than he does about the steel mill, why, argues the skilled workman, should he have a voice in its management, especially if "he can't talk United States"? In no association of men, partnership, or corporation, large or small, for pecuniary profit or otherwise, would the opinions of men notoriously and palpably unfamiliar with the work in hand be considered of equal moment with those whose antecedents and training enabled them to form more intelligent opinions. The workman applies the same common-sense principles to political matters that he applies to his daily life.

The skilled clerical workman holds the same views regarding suffrage as does the skilled manual workman. The man who makes a living by adding up columns in a ledger, drawing way-bills, buying and selling land for a principal, or putting up prescriptions, holds equally decided (and identical) views, based on personal experience and observation.

It is true that the schools, public and private, are doing much to prepare the coming generation for citizenship, but it is equally true that there is a numerically large class of people who unfortunately, through no fault of theirs, have never had the advantage of American schools. There is also a large class, especially in large cities, who through degeneracy have never availed themselves of such opportunities for improvement as came in their way. No man in his senses who has first-hand acquaintance with these classes would maintain that the South Clark Street bum or the ignorant laborer (infinitely his moral superior) who makes a scanty living on the iron-ore, salt, gypsum, coal, and lumber docks of South Chicago, is a capable judge of the learning, temperament, and character of rival claimants to the bench of Cook County. They may happen to vote right occasionally, but the considerations that move them and the arguments that appeal to them are not those contemplated by our political forefathers, and are not those that make republics successful.

The conviction is slowly shaping itself in the minds of intelligent wage-earners that mere physical existence is not a sufficient qualification for suffrage; that what is needed is some positive proof of suitable mental equipment, some actual demonstration of reasonable fitness, some common-sense application to the question of suffrage of the universally recognized business principles of every-day life. E. L. C. MORSE.

SOUTH CHICAGO, July 20, 1903.

ALGER FIRST, THE REST NOWHERE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While there are some things connected with General Alger's administration of the War Department which are still unknown, there are some things which are very definitely known. In view of the things which are known, the following extract from ex-Senator John M. Thurston's speech in Detroit last week deserves a permanent record in your columns. For its kind of measured accuracy it is unsurpassable:

"Blind as bats in the serene sunshine of his success, they have swarmed in the darkness and flung their puny ink-blots at the shining splendor of his stainless shield. But the country knows, and the world knows, and impartial history will declare, that the war administration of Russell A. Alger stands first in all the annals of recorded time."

J.

July 19, 1903.

THE AMERICAN PHILOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Many members of the American Philological Association will be sorry to read, in your report of the recent meeting, that the proposition to change the annual meeting from July to "Convention Week" was voted down. July is an impossible date for anything more than a mere fraction of the membership. Not one in eight attended the recent meeting. The New England States themselves have considerably more than twice as many members as the total attendance of that session, and New York and New Jersey number about as many more. Many of those in attendance were

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from more distant places, so it is safe to assume that not one in five of those located in the States named found it convenient to attend. I have seen no statistics of the postal-card vote taken some months ago, but the pitiable, meagre attendance of recent years certainly suggests the advisability of making the change.

A MEMBER OF THE ASSOCIATION.

July 24, 1903.

Notes.

Original articles by Booker T. Washington, Professor Du Bois, C. W. Chesnutt, and T. Thomas Fortune, combined under the title, 'The Negro Problem,' will be published by James Pott & Co.

'Arnold's March from Cambridge to Quebec,' a critical study by Prof. Justin H. Smith; and 'Francis Adrian van der Kemp, 1752-1829,' an autobiography, edited by Mrs. Helen Lincklaen Fairchild, are just issuing from G. P. Putnam's Sons.

'Thomas Moore,' a biography in the English Men of Letters series, by Stephen Gwynn, and 'The Foe of Compromise, and Other Essays,' by William Garrott Brown, are forthcoming from Macmillan Co.

Benziger Brothers of this city have nearly ready a translation of the best encyclical letters of the late Pope, with a preface by the Rev. John J. Wynne, S. J.

Dr. John Louis Haney of the Central High School, Philadelphia, has printed privately 'A Bibliography of Samuel Taylor Coleridge,' of which a feature not obviously implied in the title is a list of more than 340 volumes annotated marginally by the poet, with indication of their present whereabouts when known. "Political Tributes" is another section, along with "Parodies and Imitations" and "Portraits." The edition is limited, in two forms.

The Library of Congress has issued a "Calendar of the John Paul Jones Manuscripts" which came to it in the collections of Peter Force. This calendar, prepared by Charles H. Lincoln, is extremely full, and pays particular attention to names and places. So far as the summaries of the documents are concerned, the work has been well and thoroughly done; but the index is very clumsy, due to excessive minuteness and bad arrangement. The volume contains an excellent reproduction of the Houdon bust of Jones.

'Westward Ho!' in two volumes continues the Library Edition of Charles Kingsley's Novels, Poems, and Memories undertaken by J. F. Taylor & Co. of this city. Raleigh, Elizabeth, and Sir Richard Grenville are the genuine historical illustrations. The Dent-Macmillan Thackeray proceeds with 'The Great Hoggarty Diamond, etc.,' and 'The Adventures of Philip,' in two volumes. Besides Mr. Brock's designs, there are the curious crayon portrait sketch by Samuel Lawrence, and Maclise's group of Fraserians, including Thackeray.

In the Dent-Macmillan "Temple Classics" John Healey's Elizabethan translation of St. Augustine's 'City of God' fills three volumes, with as many photogravure frontispieces after Botticelli, Fra Angelico, and Fra Filippo Lippi. This version, with all its scholarly shortcomings, held the field alone for two centuries and a half, and is now a monument to its English as much as to St. Augustine.

"The Temple Bible" (Dent-Lippincott) adds, in the uncanonical field, the First and Second Books of Esdras in one volume, edited by Dr. Archibald Duff, who breaks a lance for the Apocrypha.

Since its first appearance in 1889, Professor Merriman's 'Treatise on Hydraulics' has been very considerably expanded in order to keep pace with the recent advance of hydraulic engineering. Its usefulness has been correspondingly increased, and the eighth edition (John Wiley & Sons) is valuable as a text-book for engineering students or a reference book for practising engineers.

The late convention of the National Educational Association in Boston was well provided with local information. Of Mr. Bacon's Boston Guide we spoke last week. Mr. Lindsay Swift compiled for Houghton, Mifflin & Co. a little volume entitled 'Literary Landmarks of Boston,' an almost house-to-house census of writers, great and little, deceased and living, arranged by quarters and streets, with excellent illustrations. "Boston" is found to stand for the Greater Boston, with a reach to Salem and Beverly. No portraits are given.

We read in the *Library Journal* that a new edition of the American *Library Association's* 'Catalogue of 5,000 Volumes' for a small library is undergoing a transforming revision under the direction of Mr. Dewey of the New York State Library, and will be ready for the St. Louis Exposition next year. In the same number (for June) is a paper by Bowdoin's librarian, Mr. George T. Little, describing his new domain, Hubbard Hall, and his adaptation of British Museum methods of compact storage for the less used books. Noticeable in this connection is Mr. William E. Foster's allusion, in his latest report for the Providence Public Library, to the books "which are discarded on account of being superseded." This "sifting process," of course, makes trouble when such books are called for, and also for the cataloguing department. The rational policy of exclusion finds expression in the current report of the Cleveland Public Library. "The purchase of new novels has been based upon written opinions of members of the reading committee, and the best reviews. No attempt has been made to meet the great demand for the popular novels of the day." Some help to the building up of a more permanent collection Mr. Brett finds in the much criticised reduction of discounts enforced by the American Publishers' Association. In connection with the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh, the Cleveland Public has prepared an analytical dictionary and catalogue of children's books, to be printed at the expense of the former institution. The librarian of the John Crerar Library, Chicago, in his eighth report enumerates the advantages of the card system of the Library of Congress, yet doubts if, in place of his subscription for twenty-one copies of each title, he might not economize by subscribing for one to be used as copy by his own printer. The Crerar Library, by the way, has just published a supplement to its valuable 'List of Serials in Public Libraries of Chicago and Evanston,' corrected to April, 1903. The undertaking has abundantly proved its usefulness in unexpected ways. Thus, it has led to the completion of defective sets.

The Massachusetts Historical Society's sixteenth volume (new series) of Proceedings contains the record of meetings from March to December, 1902, as well as several papers of interest. Among these are the exhaustive account of the "Registers of Probate for the County of Suffolk," by the late John T. Hassam, and "The Historical Conception of the United States Constitution and Union," by Daniel H. Chamberlain. Of the Newburyport Diary of John Quincy Adams, from 1787 to 1789, furnished by his grandson, Charles F. Adams, we have already spoken. Other papers are "Some Early Religious Matters at the Piscataqua," by James De Normandie; "The Condition of Naval Affairs in Boston in 1812," by James F. Hunnewell; "Cotton's 'Moses and his Judicials,'" by Worthington C. Ford, and "A Glance at Suicide as dealt with in the Colony and in the Province of Massachusetts Bay," by John Noble. A series of letters from James Parker, one of the best-known colonial printers, to Benjamin Franklin, is communicated by W. Ford, together with some letters of Richard Lechmere, by Charles C. Smith. Remarks by Gamaliel Bradford on historic evolution in Massachusetts, by William W. Crapo on Gosnold's voyage, by Samuel A. Green on the Cardiff giant, and by Warren P. Upham on some rare books in shorthand, are reported in full. A biographical memoir of Lincoln Flagg Brigham, with portrait, is contributed by Solomon Lincoln, and there are informal tributes to the memory of Samuel R. Gardiner, James B. Thayer, Horace Gray, Charles G. Loring, and other deceased members. The frontispiece to the volume is a photogravure from a portrait of John Quincy Adams, painted by Copley in 1796, which reappears in Little, Brown & Co.'s reprint of the Diary.

The Geological Survey of Canada has recently published Volume XII. (new series) of its Annual Reports, comprising 972 pages, and containing 8 maps and 13 plates, as well as 29 half-tone illustrations and numerous figures in the text. It opens with a summary of operations by the director, the late Dr. George M. Dawson, which incidentally points out the pressing need of a new museum building for the collections of the Survey. Elfric Drew Ingall contributes a "Report on the Iron Ore Deposits along the Kingston and Pembroke Railway in Eastern Ontario." It gives the results of investigations undertaken with a view to ascertaining the quantity and the quality of available ore from immediately accessible localities in that district. The supply appears to be almost entirely magnetite, with some hæmatite or bog-ore. The district would probably yield 100 tons daily. "A Report on the Geology of Argenteuil, Ottawa, and part of Pontiac Counties, Province of Quebec, and portions of Carleton, Russell, and Prescott Counties, Province of Ontario," by R. W. Ells, describes an area of about 4,000 square miles. Incorporated with this report are the results of important exploratory work done nearly twenty-five years ago by L. R. Ord, but never before published. Dr. Ells also contributes a "Report on the Geology and Natural Resources of the Area Included in the Map of the City of Ottawa and Vicinity," containing

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about 450 square miles, and most interesting from a geological standpoint. All the palæozoic formations are present, from the base of the Potsdam sandstone to the Medina, and most of these are highly fossiliferous. A. Osann's "Notes on Certain Archæan Rocks of the Ottawa Valley" deal with the principal types of gneisses and the technically important minerals apatite, mica, and graphite. In the "Report of the Section of Mineral Statistics and Mines" Mr. Ingall shows that the growth of Canada's mineral industry continues to be satisfactory. The increase of 1899 over 1898 amounted to nearly $11,000,000, or upwards of 28 per cent.

The Annual Report of the Department of Mines, New South Wales, for 1902, embraces reports from the Under Secretary for Mines and Agriculture, the Chief Inspector of Metalliferous Mines, the Chief Inspector of Coal and Shale Mines, and the Government Geologist. It appears that the aggregate value of metals and minerals produced in the State to the end of 1902 is £152,280,312. The value of the production for 1902 is £5,368,145, and falls short of that of the previous year by £368,490. This is attributable to the drought, one of the worst and most prolonged which have ever visited Australia, and to the low price of silver and lead. The coal-mining industry has made satisfactory progress, the value of the production amounting to £2,206,598.

The sum of $300 will be paid for accurate information indicating the present whereabouts (with permission to copy the same) of the MS. work, written by the Rev. Lewis Rou, entitled 'Critical Remarks upon the Letter to the *Craftsman* on the Game of Chess,' being a closely written, thin, small quarto of twenty-four pages, beginning with a dedicatory letter: "To His Excellency, William Cosby, Esq., Captain-General and Commander-in-Chief in and over the Provinces of New York and New Jersey." At the end of this dedicatory epistle is the date: "New York, ye 13th of Decemb. 1734," which date is virtually repeated at the end of the MS. This unpublished tract was, during 1858-9, for a while in the possession of the late Dr. George H. Moore, then librarian of the New York Historical Society, to whom it had been lent by the now unknown owner. Information concerning it may be sent to the Librarian of Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.

—The August *Century* is a number of unusual interest. Andrew D. White begins the reminiscences of his diplomatic career, dealing with his first mission to Germany, 1879-1881. Like Lowell in England, Mr. White found himself obliged to devote too much of his time to ambitious Americans wanting to be presented at court, seekers after fabulous fortunes supposed to be waiting for American heirs, Germans seeking to evade the requirements of German law through the aid of hastily acquired American citizenship, and the various other troublesome classes which international courtesy tends to create and international law has as yet found no way to abolish. Mr. White seizes the opportunity to plead for a better trained and more permanent diplomatic force, and incidentally expresses himself strongly against the proposal, so often agitated, to give our Cabinet secretaries a seat in Congress. He prefers to contemplate American Cabinet officers "sitting quietly in their offices, giving calm thought to Government business, and allowing the heathen to rage at their own sweet will in both houses of Congress." Alice Katharine Fallows describes in a very complete and lucid manner the great advance of the past three years in securing for New York city a healthful milk supply. Ray Stannard Baker contributes an article on the oft-described Yellowstone Park, and F. W. Stokes, the artist, gives an account of his voyage with the Swedish South Polar Expedition, which sailed from Gottenburg in the autumn of 1901. The article is accompanied by four color reproductions of the sketches which Mr. Stokes made on the spot. As the magazine is held in the hand the effect seems unnatural; but, seen under proper conditions of distance and light, one can easily imagine these pictures to be very lifelike representations of the marvellous polar sunlight. Professor Winchester finishes his admirable sketch of Wesley in this number, and the Editor, considering the wholesome effect of Wesley's preaching in breaking up smuggling, bribery at elections, etc., calls for another Wesley to lead the much needed ethical revival of the present age. The Walter Scott letters to Mrs. Hughes are also completed.

—'A Political History of Slavery,' by William Henry Smith (G. P. Putnam's Sons), is, according to the title-page, "an account of the slavery controversy from the earliest agitations in the eighteenth century to the close of the Reconstruction period in America." Mr. Whitelaw Reid furnishes an introduction and a short biographical sketch of the author, who was Collector of the Port of Chicago under President Hayes, but better known as an editor, and for having been for many years manager of the Associated Press. The concluding chapter, on "The Failure of Reconstruction," is by Prof. John J. Halsey. Mr. Reid, in his introduction, gives an account of the origin and purpose of the work. It seems that President Hayes requested the author to act as his literary executor and prepare an account of his life and times. The early part of Mr. Hayes's career brought him "into a centre of the anti-slavery movements which preceded the organization of the Republican party," and thus his biographer was compelled to study the political side of the genesis of the anti-slavery movement. The result is the present book, which is to be followed by the 'Life of President Hayes.' This, though left incomplete by Mr. Smith, will be finished and published by his son-in-law, Mr. Charles R. Williams. The present volumes go over well-worn ground, but Mr. Reid in his introduction mentions two points which he thinks gives the book its special claim to attention: first, that, in the view here presented, relatively small importance is attached to "sentimental agitations and agitators," and greater honor awarded to "those who, instead of brilliantly saying things that alienated support, soberly did things that compelled it," and, second, that the author "is careful to correct the notion," set forth by Mr. Henry Wilson, that the anti-slavery sentiment in Ohio was chiefly due to the New England emigrants. The book is not controversial. The author merely devotes himself to showing the political agencies by which slavery was abolished, and the result is that we hear a great deal of Ohio and the Middle West, and the part played by Chase, Brough, McLean, Morton, Hayes and others, and almost nothing of the abolitionists or of anti-slavery literature, with entire neglect of the genetic relation between the moral anti-slavery agitation and the first political organization. This is one-sided "history." The book goes back to the eighteenth century, and seems to profess to deal with the slavery controversy as a whole.

—Since Townsend Harris, after study and collection of materials, gave up his idea of writing a book on Formosa, there has been little attempt in English in the way of description of this island, except the Rev. William Campbell's 'Missionary Success in Formosa' and the late E. H. House's 'The Japanese Expedition to Formosa,' both of which were reviewed at length in these columns. We have now, happily for those interested, a portly volume of nearly seven hundred pages, which, besides being crammed with information, is well illustrated and indexed. It is by James W. Davidson, Consul of the United States for Formosa, and issues from the press of Macmillan & Co. Among the eight-score or more illustrations are colored reproductions of two Chinese posters, and a frontispiece showing the peaks of Mount Morrison, now the highest in the Empire of Japan (13,880 feet). It is snow-clad and its slopes are abundantly timbered. Nitaka Yama, as the Japanese name it, is the lord of the range which dominates the whole island from north to south, precipitous on the ocean flank and with a long slope and wide littoral on the side toward Asia Most of the other pictures, except the reproductions from old Dutch books and a few Japanese and Chinese sketches, are modern photographs, clear, informing, and splendidly reinforcing the text. There is also a very well executed map in colors, on which the habitat of the different groups of savages in the eastern or ultramontane part, the railways, roads, lighthouses, harbors, towns, villages, seats of authority, and the districts once notorious for head hunting but now under complete Japanese control, are marked.

—In such an encyclopædic work, admirable for its wealth of information, one need not expect many literary attractions, yet the narrative of the Japanese invasion of 1874, of the short-lived Formosan Republic, and of the Japanese occupation of 1895, is spirited and interesting. Mr. Davidson pictures the "beautiful isle" under the Hollanders, 1514-1655 (the Dutch literary authorities here being abundant), the kingdom of Koxinga, 1662-1683, and Formosa as a Chinese possession and under mandarin rule. He goes into much detail about foreign intercourse and shipwrecks, showing that citizens of the United States were more than once held not only as captives, but as slaves, and how the landing of an American expedition in 1867, with a "fight in a furnace" among the bamboo jungles, resulted in another of the many disasters which were common to Western waifs or visitors until the Japanese occupation of 1874. The story of the French campaign of 1884-'85, and of the progress of the islanders under the Chinese, is told with fulness and fairness. Then comes the detailed story of the Chinese cession and costly Japanese conquest, followed by colonization, exploration, and

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government, remarkable for economic and general success. This half of the volume contains good accounts of great industries, with their production of tea, camphor, sugar, gold, coal, petroleum, sulphur, and salt. Naturally the literary treatment of the aborigines and later inhabitants is left until the last, in order to utilize as far as possible the results of the explorations which are still in progress. The Japanese seem to have accomplished wonders, which the photograph will help the skeptical to believe. The details of administration, enterprises, and trade of the Formosa of to-day, with account of the birds, beasts, and climate of the wonderful island, are up to date, and the abundant, painstaking index opens easily the treasures of what will probably be the standard work for a generation to come.

—'The Story of General Bacon,' by Alnod J. Boger (Methuen), is the biography and vindication of a brilliant cavalry officer whose courage and professional capacity were admitted on all sides, but whose independence of spirit prevented him from rising to high rank in the British service. Anthony Bacon was a descendant in direct line of Anthony Bacon, the brother of Lord Verulam, and had for his father one of the richest commoners in England. His wife was Lady Charlotte Harley, the "Ianthe" to whom Byron dedicated "Childe Harold." The two things that caused Bacon most trouble and proved the greatest bar to his worldly success were an impracticable temper when dealing with superiors, and a total ignorance of the value of money. Constantly in debt from the day he entered Eton, he quarrelled with his father—or his father with him—whenever the day of reckoning came. The elder Anthony paid but growled, and finally left his first-born with an estate which was heavily burdened by provision for younger children. In 1812, at the age of sixteen, Bacon received a commission in the Sixteenth Light Dragoons, and saw considerable service before the close of the Peninsular War. At Waterloo he charged with conspicuous bravery, and was severely wounded. During the next seventeen years he devoted himself with considerable diligence to the theoretical work of his profession, and became convinced of the superiority which the single-rank system of cavalry formation possessed over that of the double-rank. Mr. Boger prints some interesting letters from the Duke of Wellington, Sir Hussey Vivian, and Lord William Russell to Gen. Bacon, in criticism and general commendation of his idea. When the war with the Miguelites began, Bacon joined the forces of Dom Pedro, and equipped a force of lancers which rendered important service to the Constitutional cause in 1832-1834. His share in this Portuguese war is the most striking part of his career as a soldier. Not only was he given a chance to carry out his theory of cavalry tactics, but he held his men together by a daring and generosity that appealed to their hearts. There can be no doubt regarding the value of the foreign troops to the Constitutional cause, or of Bacon's eminence as the best cavalry officer among the foreigners. Unfortunately he became involved in troubles with Saldanha, which led to his withdrawal from the Portuguese army, and the later part of his life was largely occupied with efforts to recover back pay, together with money which he had expended to keep his troops together. Though he had friends in the Duke of York and the Duke of Cambridge, Bacon never established himself in the good graces of the War Office. Thus, in spite of his recognized skill as a commander of cavalry, he had no part in the Crimean war. He was admired for dashing courage and personal beauty, but he was also impracticable. Mr. Boger is a grandson of Bacon, and possesses the virtue of complete sympathy with his subject. At the same time he is too uncritical, his constructions are very loose, and his use of the verb is not always accurate.

—'Wesley and his Preachers: Their Conquest of Britain,' by G. Holden Pike (London: T. Fisher Unwin; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.), is one of many signs that the Wesley bi-centenary is upon us. It is to be hoped that this will give us something better than we had before, but it will be a difficult matter with such a careful life as Tyerman's and such a brilliant study as Julia Wedgwood's already in the field. If the quality of the harvest is indicated by such first-fruits as Mr. Pike's we shall be little richer when it is gathered in than we are now. What he has done, he has done with a view to speedily economizing the interest in Wesley appropriate to his great anniversary. The arrangement is topical, and under each head we have many particulars huddled together with little reference to their congruity or effective presentation. We have first "Some Characteristics of the Man," and much of the chapter is devoted to Wesley's opinions of his distinguished contemporaries. Whitefield, as "one of those who wore out fast," is compared with himself with comfortable self-satisfaction. In the second chapter we have a series of brief sketches of Wesley's more famous preachers. Other topics are "Travelling and Travellers," "Some Phases of Town and Village Life," "The Common People," "The Upper Classes," "Prisons and Prisoners." Wesley's credulity is illustrated by many examples under the head, "Belief in the Supernatural." We are less confident than Mr. Pike that our own time is less credulous than Wesley's. In general the touch is casual, the treatment superficial, and there is an absence of profound engagement on the part of the writer with his subject. Under the cover of these details the real greatness of the man and of his work somehow escapes our grasp.

A CONTEMPORARY VIEW OF RECENT FRENCH HISTORY.

Contemporary France. By Gabriel Hanotaux. Translated by John Charles Turner. With Portraits. Vol. I. (1870-1873.) G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1903.

This book belongs to that class of histories whereof the work of Thucydides is a famous example among the ancients, as the works of Philip of Commines and Lord Clarendon are among the moderns, viz.: a narrative written by a contemporary of events which passed in his own time, not in the form of a chronicle in which those events are entered as they happened, but in the form of a treatise setting them forth after a lapse of time sufficient to give some perspective. No kind of history is more interesting, none more instructive. The frequently erroneous impressions of the moment are avoided, while at the same time there is that perception of contemporary feeling, that comprehension of the leading figures as they actually appeared in the intercourse of daily life, which gives a sense of reality. True it is that eminent men are constantly misunderstood and therefore misjudged by their contemporaries. The newspapers, sometimes deliberately, more often unintentionally, misrepresent the characters and motives of the persons with whom they occupy themselves. Any one who has had opportunities of closely watching and personally knowing prominent actors in the politics of the day, is astonished to find how little the ordinary citizen who gets his notions from the daily or weekly press apprehends the truth about them. He credits them with merits they do not possess, and attributes to them motives very different from those which really sway them. Still, when allowance has been made for all this, a contemporary history, if produced by a vigorous and penetrating mind, has a kind of freshness and worth which the best writer who comes long after and relies upon the records of his predecessors cannot impart to his work.

M. Hanotaux is a good specimen of a type which has usually been well represented in France and England, and was at one time well represented in the United States also, the man of letters who is also a statesman, or at least a politician; the class to which belonged Royer Collard and Guizot and Tocqueville and Thiers, Burke and Mackintosh and Macaulay, and, in the United States, Jefferson and Benton, and in a sense even Alexander Hamilton. Trained in the French civil service, M. Hanotaux was some years ago Minister of Foreign Affairs for nearly three years. He is known in the field of literature by his elaborate work on the career and policy of Cardinal Richelieu, which secured his election to the French Academy. In the present book one discovers the diplomatist as well as the historian. The author understands how negotiations are conducted, and how much the personality of the envoy may affect the results of his mission. He has also seized the historical point of view, and thus can see in the minor incidents the larger issues involved and the general trend of events. One also discovers the practical politician, for many pages are dedicated to the debates in the French Assembly, and they are among the most interesting pages, because they present both the strategy of the leaders and the swift changes of feeling in an excitable body with that freshness and insight which spring out of familiarity with parliamentary life. As a rule, nothing is drearier than a record of debates when the excitement of the moment has passed. Here, however, the great issue of the form of government was constantly before a practically sovereign assembly. The magnitude of the stake gives importance even to the smaller moves in the game; and it was a game as full of sudden and unexpected alternations of fortune as if it had been determined by the turning up of good or bad cards on the table.

The period covered by this first volume extends from the meeting at Bordeaux of the National Assembly elected in February,

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1871, to the fall of M. Thiers after the hostile vote of that Assembly on May 24, 1873. These two years were full of great events. There was the conclusion of peace with Germany. There was the choice of Thiers as "Chief of the Executive Power," and afterwards President of the (provisional) Republic. There was the insurrection of the Commune in Paris, the siege and capture of the city by the troops of the Assembly now installed at Versailles. There were the negotiations with Bismarck about the evacuation of the eastern departments by the German army of occupation and the raising of the prodigious sum (five milliards of francs) by which Thiers ransomed the territory. Finally, there were the incessant intrigues and struggles over the settlement of a definitive form of government for the nation; and in the midst of all these troubles there is the amazing revival of France, a revival of material prosperity, a revival of moral force and self-confidence. With what sort of spirit does M. Hanotaux treat these events? The patent danger to which the contemporary historian is exposed, a danger which Thucydides did not wholly escape and before which Lord Clarendon and Bishop Burnet succumbed, is that of seeing things with the eyes of a partisan. The author makes gallant efforts to be fair, and on the whole is fair, to the Legitimists and the Orleanists, although himself a Republican.

A Legitimist or an Orleanist would, no doubt, tell the story somewhat differently, yet one discovers no attempt to pervert the facts or ignore the good points of the leading men in the monarchical parties. When M. Hanotaux comes to speak of Bismarck he is naturally less on his guard, and uses language which a patriotic Frenchman resenting the misfortunes of his country would be inclined to use, though an historian of another nation would be more dispassionate, even when recognizing the harshness which the German Chancellor showed to the vanquished. Of England and English statesmen M. Hanotaux has little to say, and that little is generally unfriendly. Here and there one finds odd little mistakes. Bismarck is called a Pomeranian, whereas he belonged to the Mark of Brandenburg. To say that "Alsace had been claimed by Germany in the assignments which in 1556 followed the disruption of the empire of Charles V.," is a statement extraordinary as coming from the pen of a trained historian, the errors in which it would take many sentences to explain fully. One is less surprised to find (p. 401) the remark; "Others were inclined to borrow the income tax from England and America," for American finance is little understood in Europe.

The translation, though it is generally clear and fairly spirited, is far from perfect. Expressions are sometimes used which do not convey the real sense of the original, and other expressions are bald and scarcely intelligible Gallicisms. Some, indeed, scarcely belong to the English language at all. The rendering ought to be carefully revised in another edition.

The hero of this volume is Thiers; nor have we anywhere seen a more vivid and lifelike picture of the eager, restless, vivacious, untiring, resourceful old man who took the helm at a moment of incomparable difficulty, and steered France out of the breakers that seemed ready to engulf her. French opinion seems to think that M. Hanotaux has judged rather too severely the conduct of Thiers in yielding so much to Germany for the sake of securing peace, and in raising on such high terms the money which purchased the evacuation of the country by the Germans. This is one of the cases in which it is easy to see the evils of the course that was taken, not so easy to estimate the evils that might have followed some other course. Be this as it may, M. Hanotaux does justice to the splendid courage, the ardent patriotism, the invincible patriotism of the "little bourgeois from Marseilles," or, as Thiers called himself, "the little tradesman with the fiery soul." His vanity, his desire to make every one recognize his universal competence, his littlenesses (including his "senile penuriousness"), are admitted. But the brightness and keenness of his mind, his inexhaustible ingenuity in extricating himself from "tight places," his amazing range of knowledge, his adroitness in debate—all these receive the praise they deserve. His management of the Assembly was a masterpiece, and if he committed errors which ultimately brought him to the ground, one is less surprised at these than at the tact which, in a position of incomparable difficulty, was betrayed into so few. Thiers was not a party leader, like the statesmen of the United States and England. There was no body of adherents behind him. He had to play off the three monarchical parties against one another and against the two Republican sections, conciliating sometimes one party, sometimes another, with the knowledge that every advance in any direction provoked antagonism in all the others. Of the many anecdotes told of his lively sallies we have space for one only, which illustrates his boldness as well as his quickness:

"An acid-tongued Orleanist was saying in a group that M. Thiers had tricked his former friends, and that, in spite of his protestations, he aspired to the dictatorship. M. Thiers heard, drew near, and, addressing the malcontent, said: 'My good friend, one day King Louis Philippe wanted to make me join a ministerial combination which did not suit me. I held my ground; the King insisted. "You would like to make me believe," said Louis Philippe sarcastically, "that you do not care for office?" I was a bit annoyed, and I replied to the King, "Sir, on all the occasions when your Majesty has told me that you only accepted the burden of the Crown in desperation, I have always believed you"'" (pp. 55, 56).

It was said of Thiers that he interested more than he attracted. His soul was not lofty, his character not one to win affection. He was not greatly trusted, nor perhaps deeply respected. But he had the energy, the versatility, the power of commanding attention by the unfailing radiance of his intellect, which the time needed, added to an unrivalled experience and the reputation of having been constantly right in his frequent criticisms—criticisms often repeated—of the policy of Napoleon III.

None of the other persons who figure in the book is described with so much care or fulness as Thiers; yet light is thrown on Dufaure, Dupanloup, Jules Favre, Buffet, Gambetta, Count Arnim, and above all on the Count de Chambord, an admirable counterfoil to Thiers, as immovable in his principles and line of action as Thiers was flexible and various. One reads of the Count's repeated refusals of the crown of France—for it was practically within his grasp, so far as the Assembly could bestow it—with a mixture of admiration for his conscientious firmness, and impatience with the folly which sacrificed nearly every thing that he and his friends held dear because he could not have quite everything. To him the tricolor was the symbol of revolution. Revolution was that against which it was his highest duty to protest; so, because he clung to the white flag, monarchy was not reëstablished.

One of the most powerful chapters describes the revolt of the Communards in Paris, a frightful sequel to the war, in which both the victors and the vanquished showed a reckless cruelty worthy of 1794. Here the most striking figure is the aged Delescluze, who, after passing most of his life in prison for conspiracies against various governments, met his fate on a barricade when Paris was captured—a typical specimen of the intense, unswerving, and (in a sense) high-minded doctrinaire fanatic. The men who figured in the Commune movement had mostly been trained in the earlier days of revolution, some in 1830, some in 1848 and 1849. Revolutions form the spirit which breaks out in fresh revolutions; so it is lucky for France that as thirty-two years have now passed since the last fighting in the streets of Paris, the habit of flying to arms is beginning to wear out, and those who retain the recollection of *émeutes* are getting on in years and less likely to disturb the public peace. If M. Hanotaux does not add very much to our knowledge of that deplorable episode of April, 1871, he treats it in a spirit of historical candor and fairness.

The volume is interesting from the first page to the last, and raises high expectations of the value which the work will have when it has been completed down to the year 1900. The difficulties will not diminish as our own days are approached.

CHADWICK'S CHANNING.

William Ellery Channing, Minister of Religion. By John White Chadwick. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1903. Pp. xvii, 463.

Mr. Chadwick's brilliant sketch of Theodore Parker had prepared us to look with anticipation for his brief biography of Channing, and this anticipation is in no way disappointed by the appearance of the volume itself. Though the author has less of sympathy with his subject than with Parker, and though Channing's personal qualities evidently attracted him less than those of the younger Boston minister, Mr. Chadwick's biography of Channing displays the same firmness of grasp of the historic situation, the same clearness and vividness in the delineation of the portrait which he makes central, and the same honesty of judgment regarding the virtues and defects alike of his subject, which marked his earlier biography.

Mr. Chadwick sketches briefly Channing's boyhood experiences at Newport and the little college world in which he found himself at Harvard, so unlike the experience of the university student at the present day. He makes evident the great significance for Channing of his Richmond tutorship, in his spiritual and reformatory development, and no less in the ruin of his health, which rendered him so largely an in-

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valid the rest of his days. These topics lead, in natural chronological sequence, to a description of the provincial and self-centred Boston of Channing's early ministry and of the circumstances of his settlement over the Federal Street Society in the busy town of 25,000 inhabitants. The stipend of $1,200 seemed large to him in that frugal age; and Channing's Puritan conscience made him "afraid as ever of self-indulgence, and hence [he] took for his study the smallest room in the house, while a much better one was crying to be used, and for his sleeping-room the attic, which was ill-furnished, cheerless, cold, and every way ill suited to the condition of his health"—an asceticism which has almost wholly passed away in New England, but which continued, in a measure, even amid the extremely comfortable external surroundings of Channing's life after his marriage.

No portion of Mr. Chadwick's sketch is better drawn than that which pictures Channing's religious development during his early ministry and his relation to the Unitarian division. The author makes it evident that

"he arrived at liberal principles sooner than at Unitarian doctrines; that his larger and more characteristic thoughts anticipated the minor Unitarian expression. A noble confidence in reason, a fear of worse results from its repression or neglect than from its free exercise, distrust of theological precision as making for sectarian division, the insistence upon character as superior to creed, a lofty faith in the Eternal Fatherhood and in the dignity of human nature—such was the warp of his religion."

He justly lays emphasis on Channing's "devout biblicism." "It was because the Bible had no 'clear word of prophecy' about the nature of Christ and the Atonement that the liberals were vague and hesitating as to these matters; and Channing was so to a remarkable degree his whole life long." "He attained to liberality of temper while still semi-orthodox in thought. It was far less his intellectual, or even his moral, revulsion from Calvinism than his belief that new restraints were being forged for religious thought, that carried him into the Unitarian controversy." But though the author's sympathies are naturally and strongly with Channing's side of that great debate, it is evidence of our distance from the conflicts of that hour that he speaks with so full appreciation of the earnestness and seriousness of the "orthodox" reaction which drove Channing into the field of controversy in 1815. Controversy was, for Channing, always a painful experience. He had in his make-up none of the delight of battle. Mr. Chadwick well says of him:

"He was not, I think, a man of natural courage, but one of delicate and shrinking flesh and corresponding mind. His sermons and addresses abound in praises of moral courage, and he exemplified the trait he praised. But it was hard for him to do it. These praises were exhortations to himself to keep right on. They burned his ships; they cut off his retreat; they made any flinching on his part impossible. The things he said and did required *of him* a great deal of courage, however much or little they might have required of a quite different man."

What one misses, perhaps, in this sketch of Channing's theological development is due appreciation of the non-permanent and divisive effect of his extreme individualism, and of the degree in which conditions essentially local and provincial affected his religious thought. If the modern religious world has reached many of the conclusions at which Channing arrived, it has reached them not wholly by his road.

Channing's reformatory spirit, of which he gave such noble manifestation, sprang, as Mr. Chadwick shows, from his conviction of "the dignity of human nature." That conviction was to him so fundamental as to lead him to take, probably, the most positively sectarian position he ever assumed, when he held that in certain types of endeavor for the elevation of "the depressed classes" it would be a fettering compromise to be associated with those of other beliefs regarding this, to him, vital element of his creed. This conception of the dignity of human nature drove him into the anti-slavery conflict—a struggle, his part in which revealed his intense devotion to principles and his slight interest in individuals. His absence of all personal relation with Garrison, Mr. Chadwick points out as one of the curious manifestations of this trait of Channing's character. But his position towards the anti-slavery movement was, as Dr. Leonard Bacon of New Haven described a similar attitude, one of "betweenity." For slavery itself he had nothing but opposition; but his recollections of Newport and his acquaintance with the South had convinced him that not all slave-owners deserved denunciation for their connection with a system which, in itself, merited only condemnation. Nowhere more than in his opposition to slavery was his moral courage manifested; and nowhere did his principles cost him more hostility. From this same source of confidence in the dignity of human nature all of Channing's strong humanitarianism and reformatory interest sprang.

The description which the author gives of Channing's personal characteristics is admirably graphic, and sets the man as a sharply defined figure before the reader. One sees the constant care which his invalid health necessitated, the physical disability under which most of his labor was accomplished, and which limited his preaching to only occasional sermons during the latter part of his life. "It is hard to conceive that Channing was ever a good pastor, and he did not improve in proportion to his increasing engrossment in the large, social aspect of religion. 'I am strong,' he said, 'before the multitude, but weak before the individual.' He had no skill to meet his visitors halfway or to come down to the level of their interests."

Possessed of the respect and reverence of the community to a degree such as few men have enjoyed, his intimates were but a handful, though their attachment was lifelong. One of the closest of these few friends, Jonathan Phillips, remarked, with amusing moderation of judgment, regarding Channing, "I have known him long, I have studied his character, and I believe him capable of virtue." Certainly New England fear of exaggeration could not go further than this. Mr. Chadwick's characterization of Mr. Channing as a man deserves to be read as a whole. The conspicuous physical note he finds that of an "ill-constituted body":

"Intellectually, Channing has enjoyed the eminence which, like that of an isolated mountain, is relative to the low-lying plain. His measure was taken at a time when Boston was emerging from an intellectual mediocrity to which Fisher Ames bulked as another Burke or Cicero or Demosthenes, while denominational pride did much to aggravate the miscalculation and to pass it on. But, compared with the great intellects of the centuries, his intellectual ability makes as modest an appearance as his intellectual acquirements compared with those of the great scholars."

. . .

"Channing's preëminence in his own generation, and his abiding claim upon our admiration and our reverence, are far less intellectual than moral and spiritual. It is, in fact, the moral temper of his mind, its openness to fresh conviction, that is its most impressive trait. The moral uses of the intellect were to him subjects of his constant interest. . . . He was a man of the beatitudes, so many of them found abundant illustration in the habits of his life. The blessing of the peacemakers was upon him; the blessing of the pure in heart. But his peculiar blessing was that of those who hunger and thirst after righteousness. If Channing did not do this, no man ever did. And, according to the promise, he was filled."

Viewed as a whole, Mr. Chadwick has given us a compact, graphic, and satisfactory portrait of a leader who has grown to be generally recognized, outside of the Unitarian fold where he has always been reverenced, as one of the most lofty and admirable personalities of the New England of the first half of the nineteenth century—an age that seems in many of its aspects so remote from the present time.

CLERKE'S ASTROPHYSICS.

Problems in Astrophysics. By Agnes M. Clerke. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. 1903. 8vo, pp. 567. With 31 plates and 50 figures in the text.

The signal merits of this work will be recognized at once; nor will it cease in future to be esteemed as a breathing portraiture of youthful twentieth-century science in the department of the physiology of suns. It is a book needed by all persons who endeavor to keep up an all-round intelligence of the advances of human knowledge, and will soon be found lying well worn on the tables in all observatories. Executed with a laborious thoroughness that never tires, it is brought to the polish of a popular style—if anything, too much so. Yet it is not a book of popular science: it is a popular book on professional science—a thing seldomer to be found and quite otherwise enlightening. It is not with knowledge, organized or not, that the active thoughts of the man of science are busy; but on the contrary with all sorts of hypotheses, the most dubious things in the world. To be acquainted with science as it lives in his mind will not help one to build a flying machine, a yacht, or a wireless telegraph, but will educate one in the conduct of inquiry. It is this side of astrophysics which is presented in this volume, by an author who, if not a very eminent astronomer, has participated in the life of an observatory, and who mingles with the ablest astronomers of England and of the world, recognized by them as one of their guild. No little astronomy can be learned by merely looking through the admirable illustrations to the volume, which, now that observation is so largely conducted through the medium of the camera, are in many cases as near the real thing that the astronomer uses as single prints can be to multiplied negatives.

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the principal merits of the book, we are in duty bound to acquaint our readers with such of its apparent shortcomings as will chiefly concern them if they read it. One of these, we feel quite sure, is an error of judgment in the matter of style. Tables and algebraical formulæ are avoided almost entirely. Now tables and formulæ may be dry and hard to comprehend, in the sense that the relations that they are fitted to express are so; but when it is precisely such relations that must form the substance of the discourse, and not for a paragraph only, but for five hundred closely printed octavo pages, by all odds the least fatiguing way of apprehending them is the way that exhibits visual analogues of them —as tables and formulæ do—and then points out in these icons the special features upon which attention must be directed, with a measure of emphasis proportionate to the effort required. Instead of endeavoring to do this, our author painfully searches out ornamental ways of stating abstract relations, with a view to literature. If she has occasion to mention that the parallax of Procyon, as determined with the Yale heliometer by the admirable skill of its manipulator, is 0″.325, she will say that "Dr. Elkin has measured for it a parallactic shift of 0″.325." The idea of a shift of any kind being measured for the little dog! If she wants to suggest that every star presumably turns on an axis, the word "rotation"—not, after all, quite rustic—will not be half elegant enough for her. She must say "it has a movement of gyration." So it is in countless cases. In short bits to be read one at a time, like those of Smyth's 'Celestial Cycle,' such rococo expressions will merely excite a smile; but when it comes to five hundred solid pages of detail to be read consecutively, they add to the labor of lading the mind with it all. For at each such novel expression the reader has to stop and consider what can be meant; and it is often a little enigma.

The only other fault of the book to which we shall advert is a mere matter of individual opinion, provided logic is a matter of individual opinion, as some hold that it is, and some even that it ought to be. We might give a graded series of examples of what we mean. We are told (p. 204) that "Canopus may be no further off, but cannot be nearer than a light-journey of 296 years." The foundation for this statement is that an attempt to determine its parallax gave zero as the result, with a probable error of 0″.011, which parallax, according to Euclidean geometry (whose applicability to such vast triangles is open to question), corresponds to a distance of 296 light-years. But what is meant by the "probable error" of a determination is that value of the error (or rather of such part of the error as the method of least squares can take account of) which is equally likely to be greater or less than the real value. Therefore the inference (so far as any is justified) is that were the same inquiry pushed indefinitely it would be just as likely to make Canopus more than 296 light-years from us as less. It may be added, however, that such result would in all probability not be many times less.

Again, we are told that, "upon Doppler's principle" (or words to that effect), a certain star must be approaching or receding from the sun. In a memoir intended exclusively for professional astronomers such an expression would be innocent enough, but in writing for a larger public one has to guard against too literal interpretations. Doppler's principle does not necessitate any such thing, but only that *if* the star were approaching or receding, then, so long as no unknown cause acted, the spectral lines would all be shifted toward the red or toward the blue, as they are observed to be. But it is to be remarked that there is some reason to suspect that unknown causes do occasionally interfere with the effect.

Having had our scold at Miss Clerke's style, it will be but fair to give our reader a bit or two of it. Very likely in such doses its flavor will please:

"Sun-spots are not simply rents in a shining veil, exposing an obscure substratum. They are not 'superheated regions, where the processes of condensation are suspended. The photosphere is screened, not perforated, by them. Moreover, the screening is by interposed vapors. Umbral absorption is mainly, if not altogether, of the gaseous kind. It is essentially linear and banded. No part of it can be safely attributed to the action of a foggy precipitate such as modifies elsewhere the 'surpassing glory' of the disk. They probably differ in this respect from 'pores' and 'veiled spots,' but specific inquiries on the point have yet to be made. There are strong indications that spot-spectra originate under conditions of increased pressure and diminished temperature. Still, the coolest umbræ must be hotter than the reversing layer, for otherwise the Fraunhofer lines would show bright against them, and, as we know, they cross them in dusky array. This circumstance is fundamental in solar thermal relations, yet has been generally overlooked" (p. 96).

"Total eclipses have ceased to be indispensable for the prosecution of chromospheric studies. Day by day the red rim of the sun, with the strange forms protruding from it, can be viewed spectroscopically; and day by day the same objects vestured in violet can be photographed under the broad shelter of the Fraunhofer K-line. Nevertheless, noontide darkness, when it comes, brings very appreciable help. Differences are noticeable between what can be seen in and out of eclipse. According to the late Professor Tacchini, the chromosphere always appears deeper under cover of the interposing moon, because it is surmounted by a pink-white margin, giving continuous light, and therefore spectroscopically invisible in daylight. Some prominences are probably of analogous composition. Only their skeleton forms come out in the crimson radiance of hydrogen; they are compacted and clothed with white materials, the shining of which is effaced by the glare of common day. . . . The objects called 'white prominences' belong indeed wholly to the pageantry of eclipses. First noticed by Tacchini at Caroline Island, May 6, 1883, they showed as lucid jets about a hundred thousand miles high, with a surface like granulated silver. Attempts made, after the return of daylight, to view them prismatically proved fruitless; they gave forth no hydrogen or helium rays. Again, at Granada, 29th August, 1886, a gigantic helical structure, described by Mr. Maunder as 'of the intensest silver whiteness,' towered three hundred thousand miles above the limb of the moon" (pp. 109, 110).

The continuous reader would have been spared a pause if the author had printed *helical*, to show she simply meant eddying. She could not be expected to employ so vulgar a term as that. Another hitch in the reader's thoughts takes place when this structure is said to "tower three hundred thousand miles from the limb of the moon," though near a hundred million miles from the moon. The *limb* of the moon exists only in the vision of the spectator, and distances from it are properly measurable in degrees, minutes, and seconds, not in miles.

"An eclipse, visible in the Western States of North America, 29th July, 1878, disclosed a surprising spectacle. In lieu of the ordinary radiated corona there were seen 'bristles' of light at the sun's poles, enormous 'wings' at each side of the equator. Professor Langley observed the phenomenon from the summit of Pike's Peak in Colorado, at an elevation of 14,000 feet in a stainless sky. Thus favorably circumstanced, he was able to trace one wide beam to a distance of about five millions of miles from the sun, the other fully twice as far. The direction in which they lay proved, when carefully measured, to agree closely with that of the zodiacal light, and 'a faint central rib' emphasized the coincidence. . . . At the time of this eclipse the sun was in a state of exceptional tranquillity, and a search through the solar archives brought out the notable fact that a similar apparition had, eleven years previously—spots then too being nearly extinct—been described and depicted by Grosch of Santiago. . . . The concurrence of these phenomena with critical epochs in the sun's activity started the idea, due, in the first instance, to Mr. Ranyard, of varying coronal types. It was amply borne out by subsequent experience. From eclipse to eclipse, throughout the eleven-year cycle, the corona exhibits changes of form in marked conformity to spot-vicissitudes" (p. 127).

The Fundamental Problem in Monetary Science. By Correa Moylan Walsh. The Macmillan Co. 1903. Pp. 383.

What is the quality in good money that constitutes its goodness? Mr. Walsh assumes without proof that it is stability of value—that this is, at all events, the primary quality. The reason why stability of value is the prime constituent of goodness, he contends, is that money is used as a store of value for longer or shorter periods of time by lenders and hoarders. But value is of different kinds. What do we mean by that term when we say that money should be stable in value?

The author finds four varieties of value swimming *in gurgite vasto* on the sea of economics: (1) Use-value, or utility; (2) esteem-value, which he defines as "the affection or attachment we have for things—the energy with which we cling to what we possess, and the effort we are willing to put forth to acquire things"; (3) cost-value, or the effort or labor which things cost their producers; (4) exchange-value, or purchasing power. Use-value is generally ignored by economists as not appertaining to their investigations, since things may be useful but not exchangeable, or exchangeable but not useful. The author rejects it since, in the case of money, use-value is identical with exchange-value. Esteem-value cuts a large figure, and a rather confusing one, in Mr. Walsh's discussions. The best trained reader will be under the necessity of turning back frequently to the definition of this kind of value (quoted above) in order to make sure that he understands the author's meaning. On page 222 he defines it again as "exchange value in, or purchasing power over, labor alone, . . . forming the wages standard or, better, the earnings standard or the income standard." In another place (p. 295) he speaks of "the true conception of esteem-value, out of several conceptions not yet

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clarified." Cost-value of money means the cost of extracting from the earth and reducing the material of which it is composed. The old maxim that value is measured by cost of production has been much shaken of late. Even its advocates admit that it is only approximately true. "Value in exchange" is the only sense in which economic science here concerns itself with value. This is purchasing power—but the purchasing of what? Some say commodities, others say labor, still others say commodities and labor. Mr. Walsh gives good reasons (p. 322) for rejecting labor from this category altogether, thus making the value of money mean its command over the tangible things which are bought and sold in the world's markets.

Now the question which the author puts is this: "What kind of value is it that money measures and stores and should possess in a stable manner?" If it is exchange-value, the answer is that there is no such thing on this mundane sphere—that stability of value is impossible in any substance which is now, or ever has been, or ever can be, since value is a relation between variable things. What are we to understand by the word "should" in this query? It implies that if the thing which men are now using as money is not stable in value through the ages, it is not good money or not good enough. If so, it is open to any complainant to show us a better, and it is not necessary for this purpose to write a book of 400 pages to prove that all previous writers, except a few rather obscure ones, have tripped and stumbled in their use of the word value, giving it now the meaning of exchange-value, now that of esteem-value, and again that of cost-value, and passing from one to the other without seeming to be aware of the differences, and thus reaching conclusions which are non-sequiturs. Mr. Walsh finds this proneness to slipshod reasoning among French, German, Austrian, Italian, and Spanish, as well as English and American writers. He quotes from, or cites with chapter and verse, more than 300 writers, ranging from Harvey, the author of 'Coin's Financial School,' and R. G. Horr of the 'Great Debate,' to Adam Smith, Ricardo, and J. S. Mill. His acquaintance with the authors whom he quotes is not superficial, and his citations are not unfair, or not consciously so. Yet we think that he has introduced more confusion into the subject of debate than he has cleared up.

It is not true that stability of value is the quality in good money that constitutes its goodness. This is not the primary quality. Acceptableness is that quality. Whether money is stable, or divisible, or portable, or yellow, or white, or copper-colored, it must first of all be something that "passes" without dispute or delay. This facility of passing may be due to a variety of attributes, of which stability of value (in a greater or less degree) may be one, but it must have been the outcome of experimentation, of the unconscious kind, long continued and forming a custom eventually embedded in law. Aristotle, in his account of the origin of money, does not mention stability of value as one of its attributes, but only those qualities which fit it for a common medium of exchange, namely, ease of carriage, utility for other purposes than money, and the capability of receiving and retaining a stamp for identification. He says that the barter of one commodity for another preceded the use of money, and that the inconvenience of barter led to the choice of something possessing the three qualities named. He mentions iron and silver as examples. The use of money as a store of value by hoarders would naturally follow, provided the material of which it was composed would not readily decay or deteriorate. Its use as a standard of deferred payments would naturally follow, unless something more satisfactory to both borrower and lender could be agreed upon. But it is unlikely that either of these uses would antedate its use as a common medium of exchange.

If acceptableness, or the quality of passing, is the *sine qua non* and bottom fact of good money, the author's query should be stated thus: The common medium of exchange (*e. g.*, gold), being what it is, how should time-contracts be drawn to the best advantage of the parties? Or, if society has interests superior to, and different from, those of borrowers and lenders, or either of them, how should time-contracts be drawn to conserve its interests? We find no help between the covers of Mr. Walsh's treatise toward an answer to this concrete question. He makes frequent reference to the tabular standard of value (of Lowe, Scrope, and others), but nowhere advocates its adoption as a practical measure. Nor does he advocate any change except a change in the mental attitude of economists toward the definition of value. What that change should be he does not indicate, but merely that they should feel the need of a change. They should have a "conviction of sin."

In the last chapter but one a decided tendency is manifested to espouse the side of the debtor as against the creditor, and a lesser tendency to favor the employee as against the employer, without, however, any suggestion of means to do so in either case. But, after exhibiting this bias, the author proceeds (p. 362) to lay down the sound proposition that—

> "Money has not, properly speaking, any function of distributing wealth to the different classes of society. . . . Money is not properly an agent for the execution of anybody's theory as to what ought to be the proper distribution of the benefits of improvements [in production] between the several classes of society."

The question how time-contracts may be drawn so as to subserve the greatest good of the greatest number is an open one, to which we hope that Mr. Walsh may at some future time direct his dialectical powers and his learning, both of which call for our admiration even where we do not accept his judgments.

Dramatic Criticism. By A. B. Walkley. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1903.

There is an old story of a sturdy English farmer who was asked by his landlord host, at a rent dinner, whether he liked the claret, to which he had been devoting himself most assiduously. "It is good drinking," he replied, "but somehow you don't seem to get much 'forrader.'" In a slightly altered form this remark might be applied to Mr. A. B. Walkley's little book, which is composed of three lectures delivered at the Royal Institution in London last February. They are very good reading, but leave the matter of which they treat pretty nearly where it was before. Perhaps they are most interesting as a demonstration of Mr. Walkley's wide acquaintance with theatrical and other literature and his ready command of apt quotation and illustration. He makes, indeed, a considerable display of erudition, filling his pages with plentiful and apposite excerpts from authors of various times and nationalities, from Aristotle to M. Filon. Thus he furnishes an excellent epitome, so far as it goes, of the opinions of successive ages on the value and functions of criticism, the structure and aim of drama, and other kindred topics.

But, after all, he does not succeed in throwing any new light upon the points which he discusses or in giving to the art of criticism a clearer definition, more precise laws, or a more assured position than it already possessed. The utility, the scope, and the limitations of criticism are tolerably well understood nowadays by all who are capable of employing or enjoying it. What he has to say about the composite character and moderate critical faculty of the average audience, or of the public in general, is approximately true—although his estimate of the popular intelligence may seem rather low to persons of longer theatrical experience than himself—but it certainly is not new. Nor is it necessary at this late day to explain that different critics, of equal capacity, are likely to regard the same thing from opposite points of view. The variety in the personal equation, of course, is infinite, and is never more strikingly manifest than in the consideration of questions of taste rather than of fact. But—and Mr. Walkley does not insist sufficiently upon this point—wherever there is a fixed standard of merit by which a work of art can be judged, or, in other words, in cases where the verdict is dependent upon knowledge and experience rather than upon sentiment or opinion, there is not likely to be any radical disagreement between properly equipped critics.

It is a pity, perhaps, that Mr. Walkley, instead of taking so much trouble to explain points which are not in dispute, did not pay more attention to the swarm of pseudo-critics who have brought upon the craft the contempt of which he complains, by assuming an office for which they are utterly unfitted. It is, unfortunately, notorious that a large proportion of what is commonly called dramatic criticism on both sides of the Atlantic is as contemptible in quality as only too often it is disgraceful in motive. But this foolish or venal stuff cannot be defended, and need not be explained. As for the varieties of genuine criticism, dogmatic, impressionistic, etc., any attempt to discriminate between their respective excellences is necessarily futile. Each is sure of its admirers if it be good of its kind. Mr. Walkley himself, for instance, who uses more methods than one very skilfully, will almost always give pleasure to his readers, even if they do not agree with him.

Obermann. By Étienne Pivert de Sénancour. With biographical and critical introduction by Arthur Edward Waite. Brentano's. 1903.

"J'ai avoué que, n'étant pas un érudit,

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j'avais, en effet, le malheur d'aimer mieux les choses que les mots," says the melancholy dreamer whose meditations Mr. Waite has undertaken to render into English. Nevertheless, the style of De Sénancour, for all its dilution, offers in general such precision as might be expected in a writer who, in spite of himself, inherits the classical traditions of the eighteenth century; it were to be wished that something of the same spirit had animated his present translator. For Mr. Waite, singularly enough, succeeds in conveying the more remote and abstract views of his original, while again and again falling into the most unaccountable mistakes in translating simple everyday words or expressions.

The first hundred pages show a sufficient crop, with allowance for variants in the original text. 'Le *couchant vaporeux*, mais sans nuages": "The summit softened, but not clouded" (p. 11). Obermann remarks sarcastically that some people imagine themselves on a country ramble "lorsqu'ils marchent en ligne dans une *allée sablée*"; why should any one take this to refer to a "dusty lane" (p. 15)? Of the social ostentation which he detests, yet finds everywhere, the morose wanderer says: "Mais de gros villages, mais des maisons de pierre, mais de la *recherche*," etc.; the translator gives the last word as "quest" (p. 18). "L'air était calme, on n'apercevait *aucune voile* sur le lac" furnishes the unexpected statement that "no veil of mist was visible" (p. 20). When the mountain clouds "*brunissent* les sombres sapins," Obermann notes a specific effect in color, missed in the offered equivalent of "glooming" (p. 30). "Le Jorat, qui n'est qu'une butte auprès des Alpes" undergoes an unwarrantable transformation into "only a slope near the Alps" (p. 30)—an assertion not to be hazarded in the Canton de Vaud. An invitation to share quarters in a *campagne (maison fort jolie)* is tortured into an offer "to take up my residence on his property" (p. 32). Dislike of hugger-mugger, slovenly ways, leads Obermann to speak with some disdain of the cheap Stoic "qui se fait la barbe" before a cracked mirror, while the children's clouts are hanging "contre le tuyau du poêle." One can understand that an Englishman of to-day should confound "shaving" and "beard-trimming" as the result of an expression which Sainte-Beuve, sixty years ago, noted as a solecism in his study of Töpffer; but what, save an external resemblance in spelling, could suggest to any one the use of a "frying-pan handle" as a clothes-peg (p. 68)? If the errant philosopher in search of shelter declares "*J'enfonçai* la porte antique," he certainly did not "secure" it (p. 80). In matters of detail, this translation calls for sharp revision.

An introduction of some eighty pages gives Mr. Waite free room for expatiating on his own interest in mystic and theosophic speculation, the subject with which his voluminous contributions to occultism have long connected his name. As the result of independent investigation, his conclusion substantially agrees with that of M. Jules Levallois, who, in a monograph published in 1897, professed to have discovered in the work of De Sénancour much deeper characters of mystical tendency than any of the latter's earlier critics might have been willing to admit. Mr. Waite enlarges on the theme, and traces what appear to him a number of significant analogies between De Sénancour and the strange personality of the Marquis de Saint-Martin, the "Philosophe Inconnu" of the eighteenth century; for this purpose, frequent references are made to the scarce 'Libres Méditations,' which, under this illumination, may be made to appear as the natural, though incomplete, outgrowth of the most wayward reveries of 'Obermann.' "What we find is the sorrow, the aloofness, the loneliness of the mystics, but none of their unction. In his forty-eighth letter Obermann approaches them more intimately, for he comes very near to the confession of universal sacramentalism, within even the pronaos, and we see that he is also in search of the Lost Word" (Introduction, p. 59). One can but contrast so far-reaching a statement as this with the judicious reserve of Sainte-Beuve, who pointed out that De Sénancour had ultimately risen "à une sorte de théosophie morale, toute purgée de cette âcreté chagrine qu'il avait sucée avec son siècle contre le christianisme, et toute pleine, au contraire, de confiance, de prière et de douce conciliation."

The translator's eagerness for more or less veiled indications of sympathy with his own views reminds us of Coleridge's remarks on Sir Thomas Browne, who seemed to have detected "quincunxes in heaven above, quincunxes in earth below, quincunxes in the mind of man, quincunxes in tones, in roots of trees, in leaves, in everything." Insistence on the mystical as the vital attribute in De Sénancour's writings—as the one fact that justifies a complete version of 'Obermann' all but a century after its original appearance—involves the arbitrary displacement of the real centre of interest in the work of one whose intellectual filiations were both so multiple and so elusive that ample treatment of the influences which he either underwent or exercised would cover the literary history of nearly three generations.

The Life of Joseph Parker, Pastor of City Temple, London. By William Adamson, DD. With portraits and illustrations. Fleming H. Revell Co.

There is nothing in the appearance of this book to commend it, and there is something slovenly in its inward fashion. No pains have been taken to conform the preface, which expresses a desire for Dr. Parker's recovery and renewed activity, with the closing chapter, which contains an account of his last sickness and his death. The preface is dated September, 1902; he died November 28. The book, then, is not one of those written in hot haste to economize the funeral baked-meats for a feast so prompt that they will not get cold and tasteless. It was evidently intended to be written in the lifetime of the subject, and to minister to his pleasure with the warmth of its appreciation. It is probably less critical than it would have been if it had been written after Dr. Parker's death, much less so than if it had been a few years delayed. But clearly he was one of the great popular preachers of his time; much more a lighter Spurgeon or Beecher than a coarser Phillips Brooks, in lack of delicacy sometimes approximating Talmage, to whose level of character fortunately he did not tend. Called "the English Beecher," he was that even less aptly than Cooper was "the American Scott." Certainly there is nothing quoted by Dr. Adamson that so much as suggests the poetic quality of Beecher's mind or his inexhaustible humor. The most resembling feature—witness the portraits on pages 110, 192—is the full, loose upper lip, indexical of eloquence.

In his theology Dr. Parker was much more orthodox than Beecher, though hardly more sectarian. Born April 9, 1830, his father was a stonemason, a stern Calvinist, who broke with his Independent minister as a New Light, and joined the Wesleyan Methodists, a paradoxical proceeding. But at twenty-two the son found his way back into the Independent fold, and soon into a colleagueship in London with Dr. John Campbell, an "Auld Licht" of the severest type and the strong tower of the Congregational Union. Campbell's fervor heightened that which was natural to young Parker, revealed, as was his rhetorical exuberance, in his early choice of texts, one of them, "If I whet my glittering sword and mine hand take hold on judgment, I will render vengeance to mine enemies, and reward them that hate me." He soon went to Banbury; then to Manchester, where he was when our civil war came to an end. There could not be a better token of his characteristic manner than his remark on a collection for the freedmen, taken the Sunday before: "This city is designated Cottonopolis. There are manufacturers and merchants in it who have made their pile through the blood and marrow of these now liberated slaves, and yet it is with sorrow and pain that I cannot describe, that I am compelled to announce that the collection made here last Sunday was a disgrace to civilization."

He went up to London in 1869, first to the Poultry Chapel and soon to City Temple, by which he is named and known very much as Beecher is by Plymouth Church. There was much talk of him as Beecher's successor, but we are assured that no invitation was extended, though he came to this country, preached for Beecher's people, and pronounced a eulogy on him, the conclusion of which for depth of bathos could hardly be outdone. The higher criticism found in him an antagonist who did not mince his words, and perhaps he better understood the fundamental bearing of that criticism than those do who are working out its problems. A satire upon Huxley and Tyndall is quoted as a brilliant performance. If it was so, the quotations are unfortunate. But there is abundant evidence of the man's energy, vitality, sincerity, and warm humanity, and his qualities were such as to create and to deserve the popular success which he enjoyed.

De Necessariis Observantiis Scaccarii Dialogus. Commonly called Dialogues de Scaccario. By Richard, Son of Nigel, Treasurer of England and Bishop of London. Edited by Arthur Hughes, C. G. Crump and C. Johnson. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: H. Frowde. 1902.

From time to time there issues from one

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or the other of the English university presses a piece of editorial work so adequate and so definitive as to challenge the preëminence of German scholarship in economic writing. Thus, the lamented Miss Lamond's 'Walter of Henley,' and even more her 'Common Weal of England'; Mr. Cannan's 'Lectures of Adam Smith,' and our own Professor Hull's edition of Sir William Petty, indicate the highwater mark of scientific method combined with painstaking fidelity in the preparation of economic texts.

The volume before us takes rank easily in this splendid group. The editors, with a reserve that is almost depreciation, state that their chief object has been to secure an improved text, and to collect together the many stray references to the book and reduce them to the form of a commentary, adding such results of their own researches as have seemed to them to escape the notice of others. "No claim for originality," the preface states, "is made by any of the editors for any part of their work; but every effort has been made to trace suggestions to their original authors." Few economic students will acquiesce in this excessively modest estimate. It has long been recognized that the text of the treatise which Thomas Madox first printed in 1711 as an appendix to his 'History of the Exchequer,' and which Bishop Stubbs made more generally accessible in 1870 in the 'Select Charters,' is in important places corrupt and unreliable. The critical construction of a better text by fresh collation with primary manuscripts would in itself have been a service to students of English constitutional and economic history. When such a text is issued with a full but unobtrusive editorial apparatus of text variants, historical introduction, and critical annotations, the service becomes a boon.

The text of the present edition has been constructed from three sources, viz., the two Exchequer MSS., known as the Red Book (R) and the Black Book (N), and the Cotton MS. (C). In doubtful readings, the evidence of N and R combined have been considered as slightly superior to that of C alone. In the absence of agreement between N and R, the text has followed C, while the agreement of C with either N or R has been regarded as conclusive.

The editors have adopted as the proper title of the treatise the phrase which the author himself employs in referring to its contents—"de necessariis observantiis scaccarii." The accepted title "dialogus de scaccario" is explained as probably due to a misunderstanding of the titlepage prefixed by Madox to his edition. In connection with the question of authorship, an interesting suggestion is made that the association of the treatise with Gervase of Tilbury, which prevailed for many years before Madox, arose from a confusion of the work called 'Tricolumnis,' which the author of the 'Dialogus' speaks of as his own, with the 'Historia Tripartita' of Gervase of Tilbury. Madox's identification of the real author of the treatise with Richard, Bishop of London, is abundantly confirmed by the researches of the present editors.

The Arts in Early England. By G. Baldwin Brown, M.A., Watson Gordon Professor of Fine Art in the University of Edinburgh. Vol. I.: The Life of Saxon England in its relation to the Arts. Pp. xiv., 388. Vol. II.: Ecclesiastical Architecture in England from the Conversion of the Saxons to the Norman Conquest. Pp. xviii., 350. Maps, plans, and illustrations. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1903.

We have here a vivid picture of the England of Saxon days, with its life and art. The first volume lays a groundwork for the study of the artistic remains of the period, by examination of the relation of town to country a thousand years ago, and by an inquiry into the coming of Christianity into England and its influence on the life of the people as expressed in churches and monasteries. Although in no sense a history of Saxon England, the volume reconstructs from the scanty remains of the time a scene that is as convincing as it is interesting. The second volume deals exclusively with ecclesiastical architecture in England from the conversion of the Saxons to the Norman Conquest, and forms a treatise altogether more complete than anything that has appeared on that subject.

Since any satisfactory chronological classification of these buildings appears at present quite out of the question, Professor Brown treats his examples from the point of view of the types they offer, and thus we have in turn the nave and its proportions, openings, balusters, caps, the treatment of western ends with towers, etc., etc. In this way a vast amount of material is passed under review, and scarcely any considerable Saxon fragment escapes notice. The great number and wide distribution of churches that exhibit remains of Saxon building must be a source of surprise to many. On a map prepared to show such churches and included in the book we count almost 200 in England alone. No intimation is given in the work of other volumes yet to come, but it would seem safe to assume that, with so broad a foundation as that laid by the first volume, and with so worthy a treatment of Saxon architecture as that given in the second, there should be, to justify the work's title, at least a third dealing with the smaller objects on which the Saxon craftsman exercised his skill and taste—objects such as weapons, brooches with engraved enrichments, ornamented combs, cups of cunningly wrought glass, and a store of miscellaneous things found in graves and treasured in museums.

The illustrations, done in pen and ink, seem a bit crude as such things go nowadays, but the plans drawn to a uniform scale are excellent. The author's style is lucid and animated. Some of his descriptions, as the picture of mediæval England, in the introduction are altogether masterly.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barnard, Charles. Tools and Machines. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Bowack, William M. Another View of Industrialism. E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.00 net.
Fleming, J. A. Waves and Ripples in Water, Air, and Ether. E. & J. B. Young & Co.
Jackson, Lieut.-Col. Basil. Notes and Reminiscences of a Staff Officer. London: John Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $2.50 net.
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